The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1895.

The Week.

SENATOR LODGE substantially declared war against England under his own signature in the New York *World* of Saturday, in a despatch from London. He says we cannot permit England to occupy Venezuelan territory, and that the Monroe doctrine has to be recognized as a "fact" of the same order as the independence of the United States. He declares accordingly that any appearance of British fleets and armies to coerce Venezuela will be a signal for war with the United States. We have long felt that this was coming, but supposed Lodge would delay putting on his "dust and sweat," and tackling "the work of the world" once more, till he got home. The responsibility which this bold bad man is taking on himself is something awful to contemplate. Of course, it is to our advantage to have him over in London just as the war breaks out, seeing what is going on at the enemy's headquarters; but what we cannot understand is Salisbury's not sending him his passports, but letting him wander about among the dockyards and fortifications. This does not look like the vigorous foreign policy which Englishmen were promised when the Tories came in. They knew perfectly well that Lodge was a dangerous man ever since he proposed to discriminate against English goods in order to make England drop her beastly gold standard. We feel sure, however, that if he stays in London till this despatch gets back, he will be "shadowed," and then there will be more trouble; shadowing of Americans being expressly prohibited in the Monroe doctrine.

We have Horace Bushnell's authority for believing that there are moral uses for dark things, and so we need not despair of finding profit in the study of the dark moral mystery which Senator Chandler presents. Knowing his antecedents, there is nothing strange about his now taking refuge in intensest patriotism. But his burning desire for a war with England, his visions of bloodshed and death and glory, his more than berserker rage, do make up something of a puzzle in a land where people are supposed to read and think, and where the sense of humor is reputed to be unusually acute. He is at least useful in reminding men like Lodge and Roosevelt of the hopelessness of competing with him and his kind in international truculence. He will outroar them every time. If popularity depends upon insolence and bloodthirstiness, Finerty and Chandler are sure to lead all the scholars and respectables in politics. See how easily Chandler outstrips Lodge at this juncture. The latter telegraphs from London that we must be alert, that we must stand by the Monroe doctrine, keep an eye on England, and, by inference, suspect all Anglomaniac Senators who spend their vacations in London. But the Honorable Bill does not waste time fooling with such generalities. Under six definite heads he tells us why war with England is "inevitable," how it will "arise" and be "forced" and "fought," how it should be "welcomed," and what its "sure result" will be. It is perfectly clear that if any New England Senator can bray himself into the vice-presidential nomination, his name is Chandler, not Lodge.

Two Admirals of the American navy have just got into trouble by the too free use of their tongues—that is, by gross indiscretion. One of them undertook to "sass" his own Government because he disapproved of its politics, and another arrogated to himself the functions of the State Department, and opened diplomatic relations of his own with foreign potentates. Signs of this growing indiscipline have been long visible. It is due in part to the way in which the late Administration allowed naval officers of all ranks to magnify their office in public, with the view of helping to get appropriations for the new navy; in part, also, to the unscrupulous way in which the Jingo press and orators encourage naval officers to despise and criticise any administration which pursues a peaceful policy and respects the law of nations. This disposition to drag the navy into the political arena has, in fact, grown steadily ever since the Republican party entered on a policy of extravagance in order to make a high tariff seem necessary. And yet there could not be a more ominous sign of national decadence than the enlistment of either army or navy in party conflicts. What is oddest about all this is that the Jingoes, who, more than any other class, will need a highly disciplined fleet to protect their various keys and canals, are foremost in this work of demoralizing the soldiers and sailors. They are almost making insubordination and insolence to Presidents and Secretaries of the other party a military virtue. But no navy which did not keep its mouth shut and obey orders was ever worth much.

The difficulties of diplomacy in this country are much increased by the number of diplomats at work on its various problems. In the first place, we have to reckon with all the newspapers. These have the earliest "hack at it" because they "come out" every day, whereas the most vigilant stump ambassadors, like Finerty, or Lodge, or Roosevelt, are heard only at intervals, when the State Department is growing deaf to all considerations of honor and decency. Sometimes a quasi-public body like a State convention or a State legislature lends a hand if there are any votes discerned in the distance. A good deal of attention was bestowed upon our foreign relations at the World's Fair at Chicago, but it was generally of a peaceful nature, sometimes bordering on the jocose, especially when Mayor Harrison took part in it. Thus we had "days" set apart for various nations, with special exercises for each, intended to promote good feeling and to bring in some extra gate money. Now it is proposed that the Atlanta Exposition shall be annexed to our diplomatic equipment by setting apart a day devoted to Cuban independence, or to the republic of Cuba, or to something of that kind. It is said that this demonstration was originally designed to take place during President Cleveland's sojourn there, for the purpose of bringing pressure to bear upon him (his susceptibility to pressure being well known), but that he indicated his objections to that mode of administering foreign affairs, and that consequently the date was postponed to the 17th of December. If "Cuba day" is to be celebrated at Atlanta, then surely we ought to have Hawaiian day, Armenian day, and especially Irish day. Perhaps it would be better to have one day set apart for all oppressed people everywhere, including those of South Carolina. Then the orators could orate without any fixed limitations, which would be an advantage to them as well as to the oppressed. It would also be advantageous to us, since it would require no embarrassing explanations from the Secretary of State, whereas a Cuban day alone would produce emotions in Spain which would not be easily allayed.

One of the pleasing little fictions with which Republican orators and organs now amuse themselves is, that South America is never really happy and contented except when the Republicans are in power in the United States. Look at this wretched paltering over Venezuela, they say, this criminal delay in driving the Spanish out of Cuba, and just think what a Quigg as Secretary of State would have done. No wonder the Venezuelans are crying out, "Oh, for one hour of Jim Blaine!" But the fact is, that they had about five years of him, and got far less aid from him in their boundary dispute with England than from either his Democratic predecessor or successor. What they did get from him was an arbitrary, discriminating, and offensive tax laid on one of their principal exports to this country. That was the kind of sweet content the Republicans were giving South America. They threatened Argen-

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tina with similar offensive duties on hides. They domineered over Chili in a way that led to the suggestion of a South American alliance to resist the aggressions of the United States. In fact, when Harrison went out of power, he left a distinct feeling of suspicion and exasperation against this country in all Spanish America. When the news of his defeat reached Brazil, the editor of the *Rio News*, himself an American, in explaining the pleasure of South Americans at Mr. Cleveland's election, said: "The fact seems to be that South America was always nervous over President Harrison's foreign policy, and expects Mr. Cleveland's Secretary will show less inclination to have a finger in every pie." In like manner the *Revista Ilustrada*, a journal devoted to South American interests, spoke of the "great satisfaction" with which the election of Mr. Cleveland had been received "from the Rio Grande to the La Plata," on account of "the principles of justice at home and abroad which that statesman represents." It is safe to say, therefore, that the South Americans are not exactly pining for a return of the party to power which shows its extreme fondness for them by discriminating taxes, threats, insults, and ultimatums.

A religious paper publishes a programme for a series of meetings in this city to promote interest in foreign-missionary work. The reasons given for this special effort are, the low condition of mission funds, and the criticisms which "a hostile world" is now "hurling" at the cause. We know of no evidence that the world is hostile to foreign missions. They are a source of great expense and anxiety and diplomatic complications to many purely secular governments, yet none of them proposes, that we ever heard of, to falter in its support of missionaries. One of the reasons, in fact, for the degradation of an American admiral was that he had insulted a missionary, and, in his person, the cause of missions. The kind of criticism which a hostile world hurls at missions is mostly in the form of questions. It wants to know why men are not allowed to preach to the heathen what they may preach at home; why the sectarian divisions of Protestantism need to be thrust in so unseemly and confusing a fashion upon pagans; why missionaries are allowed publicly to vilify the authorities to whom they are legally subject—to call them "wretches" for whom "hanging is too good"; why the converted Hawaiians so suddenly became monsters of lewdness and deceit when a scheme to steal their country from them was worked up, and not a missionary of prominence, or a missionary board, had a word to say in their defence. In fact, the "hurling" has almost all been done by missionaries and champions of missions, and all that a hostile world has done has been to point out some of these curious things, and ask how they were to be accounted for. No better work can be done by the speakers at the coming meetings than to try to explain these anomalies, and "hurl back" the criticisms by answering them calmly and fairly.

The question of "reorganizing" the Senate seems now to be troubling the sleep of the Populist members of that most august legislative assembly on earth more than that of either Republican or Democratic Senators. Several of the New England Senators have declared that they will enter into no bartering with the Populists for the clerkships. The Democrats say less, probably because, if the others cannot combine, the clerkships and the chairmanships will remain safely in their possession. But the Populists, who counted on being assiduously wooed by both parties, have now taken up the wooing themselves. Stewart, it is true, cried out in great bitterness of soul the other day, that it was of no use for the Senate to "organize," or even meet at all, so long as it was simply to register the decrees of Wall Street. But this was only a passing burst from an anguished heart, and Senator Butler of North Carolina now announces the Populist plan of reorganizing. The thing should be done, not by a dicker or deal, not on party lines, but "on silver lines." What could be simpler? A majority of the Senators were elected as silver-men, and how can their haughty spirits brook being admitted to the Senate chamber by a gold doorkeeper, or having their committees served by non-silver clerks? The plan to change all this on silver lines is seductive, but it is unfortunately true that whenever silver lines get tangled up with party lines, the latter always prove the stronger. Senator Butler might as well talk of organizing the Senate on Populist lines. The whole thing is a matter in which the public takes little interest. Popular zeal for reorganizing the Senate might easily be aroused if it were a question of how to get rid of some of the agitators and corruptionists who sit at the desks, but when it is simply a squabble over who shall open doors and answer messages and write letters, the august assembly will be left to fight it out at its own convenience and in its own style.

There could be no stronger evidence of the subsidence of the old sectional issues that grew out of slavery than the general lack of concern in the North as to the practical disfranchisement of the majority of the negroes in a Southern State contemplated by the Constitutional Convention now in session at Columbia, S. C. Republican newspapers, it is true, comment upon the course of proceedings at the South Carolina capital, but the editors evidently feel that their readers have only a languid interest in the matter. The Philadelphia *Bulletin* states the truth when it says of the South Carolina movement and the similar action taken by Mississippi five years ago, that "there was a time when the Republican party throughout the North would have been aflame with indignation over these disfranchisements of the negro." What is the cause of this complete revolution in public sentiment? The good Republican newspaper from which we quote is perfectly frank in answering this question. "The plain truth is," says the *Bulletin*, "that the Republicans generally have come to the conclusion that universal negro suffrage has been a failure, and that the desire of the South to free itself from the evils of a great mass of ignorance, stupidity, and superstition at the ballot-box is largely pardonable." The Philadelphia journal even goes so far as to say that "it is difficult to find an argument against either the Mississippi or the South Carolina plan of disfranchisement, however much we may detest the race prejudices which have partly inspired it."

But while admitting that it will not be easy to show that the fifteenth amendment is violated by the application of an educational test, the effect of which is to debar most negroes from voting, the *Bulletin* holds that there can be no doubt as to the duty of Congress, under the fourteenth amendment, to reduce the representation in Congress and the electoral college of any State which thus decimates its black voters. It regards this as so plain a matter that it declares that "the number of Mississippi's and South Carolina's seats in those bodies should be cut down at as early a day as the facts can be ascertained for legislative action." But is this as simple a process as the *Bulletin* represents? The fourteenth amendment provides that when the right to vote is denied or abridged by any State, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, "the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State." Apply this principle to Mississippi. That State five years ago adopted a constitution which provides that, in order to vote, a man "shall be able to read any section of the Constitution of this State, or shall be able to understand the same when read to him, or give a reasonable interpretation thereof." This plan was designed to let in all of the whites and keep out all of the blacks except the most intelligent. But how can anybody ever find out how many blacks are thus denied the suffrage? The census shows how many "male members of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States," in 1890, were negroes; but there are no records which show how many of these negroes are unable either to read the Constitution or to understand it when read to

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them. It is difficult to conceive of any practicable method of ever settling this question, and we can see no way in which "the facts can be ascertained for legislative action," according to the *Bulletin's* idea.

"Jersey justice" is in danger of becoming proverbial in a new sense, if it keeps on letting one public criminal after another go unwhipped. The latest acquittal makes it practically certain that not one of the men smirched by the investigations of the Voorhees committee last spring will be convicted. Even the frightened head conspirator, who fled the State, may as well come home and snap his fingers at the law, as it appears that there is no legal machinery in New Jersey to convict self-convicted public thieves. The Senate investigation put the moral evidence of guilt beyond dispute. No apologist was bold enough to say a word for Ford or Van Cleef or Mullins. They were indicted speedily enough; but the prosecution broke down most impotently in the cases of the last two, and Ford is safe in hiding. Even he could not now, it is probable, be convicted of conspiracy to rob the State, for which he stands indicted. No intelligent citizen of New Jersey doubts that the State capital swarmed with thieves, yet no one now expects to see anything done about it.

The full registration figures have convinced the Tammany "bluffers" that it was a mistake to bet on the result of the election until the registration was completed. Sheehan put forth his claim of from 40,000 to 50,000 Tammany majority on the registration of the first two days, and the offer to bet $10,000 to $8,000 on Tammany was made on the same incomplete basis. Both claim and bet were quickly withdrawn, and Tammany gloom reigned in their stead. There is not a really competent "arithmetic man" in the city who does not believe that the registration is heavily against Tammany, and that it became so largely through the additions of the two closing days. Sheehan's "bluff" was, in fact, a very bad blunder, for it aroused an apprehension throughout the city that Tammany was in danger of getting back into power, and thereby induced thousands of respectable citizens, who had been indifferent to the election, to put their names on the voting lists. The simple fact that the total registration this year, while not so large as that of last year, is more than 15,000 greater than that of 1893, the last "off year," shows that the people of the city are not indifferent to the result. The further fact that there has been a great falling off in the totals in the Tammany strongholds removes all doubt as to the meaning of the figures. The people of the city are determined that the Tammany disgrace shall not be put upon them again

The falling off in the registration in the Tammany districts is due unquestionably to the more stringent requirements of the new election law. There has been some disposition to ridicule these requirements, especially those relating to the color of the hair and the age and weight of the voter, but it is very evident that "floaters" do not take a jocose view of them, and it was at this class of Tammany cheats that they were aimed. Then, too, we have had this year a more competent and honest force of registration officials than ever before. The old incompetents and rascals were weeded out by the examinations which the Police Board instituted, and honest and capable men were put in their places. Another influence for good has been the memory of the convictions for cheating at the polls which followed the elections of 1893 and sent so many Tammany workers to jail. In short, reform has played havoc with Tammany's regular vote, which stood so solidly against all assaults for many years, and which gave so many estimable people an overpowering sense of Croker's great abilities as a leader because he was able to predict so accurately what the Tammany majority would be. If you can by repeating and false counting make your majority just what you wish it to be, prediction becomes a very simple matter. The hated reformers have made repeating and false counting so dangerous by their new registration requirements and their watching at the polls that Croker's basis for predictions has been completely washed away.

Mr. Cram, the President of the late Tammany Dock Board, did not do well to "yawn" and grow tired at his examination by Mr. Terry on Monday. He was assisting at the explanation of a great mystery. Mr. Cram is the son of an eminent father, a graduate of Harvard College, a "gentleman" in the technical sense of the term, a man of means, and yet he has for two or three years been associating intimately, night and day, with a lot of thieves, cheats, and ruffians. Moreover, whenever they were near being found out, they were in the habit of coming forward and saying, "Look at Cram. Cram would not be with us if we were doing anything wrong." So that for years the town has been asking what Cram was doing among them. Consequently, in submitting to examination, he is helping in the solution of an interesting municipal problem. He is one more illustration of the extreme uncertainty of the bird known as the "gentleman in politics," or, as he is sometimes called, "the scholar in politics." "The gentleman in politics," the college graduate, and all that sort of thing, appears to be just what we want in politics until he gets into it. As Tacitus said of Galba, every one thinks he would make a first-rate politician till he becomes a politician. When he does, as a rule, the gentlemanhood and the scholarship tumble from around him, like the scaffolding of a jerry-built house, and he becomes as ardent and enthusiastic a humbug as any of the politicians. They at first use him as a decoy, and say: "This is the kind of men we want for office. Would we had more of the same. His presence in our councils shows you how the papers lie about us." As he warms to his work, however, and his fraternal relations with the public cheats can no longer be concealed, he is assigned the duty of answering the critics, which he does sometimes angrily, sometimes with a long-suffering, patient-merit air, and sometimes with that of a victim of public spirit, because he stays among the bad men to prevent their getting worse.

We should like to print a list of the ones we have in mind, but it is not necessary. Every reader can make out a list for himself. That such a list can be easily made out, however, is a painful fact. It seems to show that while the colleges are undoubtedly diffusing through the community wider knowledge and higher aims, they are not able to arm any man against the temptations of office-seeking. It seems as if the minute a man wanted an office, even a small municipal office, he looked his personality over, and carefully got rid of whatever qualities he had derived from honorable parents, or from a university education, which political ruffians and blackguards were likely to despise or dislike.

Herbert Spencer's contribution to the Canadian copyright discussion is most weighty. If Canada is to insist, with the United States, upon separate publication in order to secure copyright, it will be a disastrous blow to the higher orders of literature. To multiply centres of production—in the sense of compelling an English book to be printed separately in three or four places—would be, says Mr. Spencer with great force, so absolutely wasteful a process that the margin of profit would be destroyed. If forced to reprint in this country his works since 1860, he says, not one of them would have been written. The principle is most important. Our own law compelling simultaneous and separate publication has already proved a source of endless vexation to English authors, and of loss, æsthetic and moral if not pecuniary, to the American public also. On its face the law defies convenience and economy, as well as international courtesy and equality, and that is a sufficient condemnation of any law affecting the production and distribution of literature. It has been said that if Scott had had an American copyright, he need not have worked himself to death to pay his debts; but under our present law, the extra labor of reading two sets of proof, making two sets of plates, and, in general, doubling all the care and trouble of publishing, might easily have sent him to his grave sooner than he actually went.

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MORE ABOUT THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

A CORRESPONDENT asks us certain questions about our views on the foreign policy of the United States, which we have great pleasure in answering, or trying to answer. He justly observes that while we "have frequently instanced where we should not interfere in any matters affecting any of our neighboring nations," he "has not observed instances indicated by us where we should." The explanation of this is easy. We do not in this journal carry on academical controversies or write essays on international law. We discuss the questions of the day as they arise. No proper case for the interference of the United States in the affairs of neighboring nations has, in our opinion, arisen since the French invasion of Mexico thirty years ago. We have, therefore, when treating such interference, treated it "negatively," that is, have opposed it on several occasions when urged by Jingoes or young newspaper warriors. We have said, You must not do that, because it is not lawful or expedient; and this was enough for our purpose.

But being now requested to cover the whole ground, we answer frankly to the first question, that, in our opinion, we should "remonstrate or interfere in the proceedings taken by powers other than American with American nations on this continent other than our own," in all cases arising under the Monroe doctrine. What is the Monroe doctrine? Here it is, taken textually from President Monroe's message:

"We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power, we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. . . . But in regard to these continents, circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different. It is impossible that the allied powers should extend their political system to any portion of either continent without endangering our peace and happiness; nor can any one believe that our Southern brethren, if left to themselves, would adopt it of their own accord. It is equally impossible, therefore, that we should behold such interposition, in any form, with indifference." (Message of December 2, 1823.)

Consequently, if any European power should seek to set up or impose on the people of any South American state, by force of arms, any government or form of government which the people did not demand or were opposed to, or should seek to "oppress them or control their destiny" in any manner, we should hold it to be the duty of our Government to repel by as much force as might be necessary any such attempt. The invasion of Mexico by the French was an attempt of this order, and Mr. Seward acted properly in giving them peremptory notice to quit as soon as we had forces available to compel compliance. This is an answer to questions 1 and 2.

The third question, apropos of the Venezuelan trouble, requires more extended treatment. England is already a neighbor of Venezuela, and holds conterminous territory by a title which nobody denies. The frontier runs for a long distance through a tropical wilderness. There have, for this reason, been disputes of long standing over the exact line, as there are between nearly all Spanish-American states. They are aggravated in this case by the fact that this wilderness is a gold country. All this raises the strong probability either that neither side is quite right, or that the truth of the matter is hard to get at. The Venezuelans are no more moral than the British, and no less greedy, and if we acknowledge the right of Great Britain to hold territory on this continent, we must acknowledge her right to protect that territory against invasion or appropriation. We cannot ask her to consider herself in the wrong because she is the more powerful, or confess that weakness, any more than might, makes right, because we should never think of applying such a rule to ourselves. We have always, in all disputes with these little South American states, imposed on them our own view of the justice of the case. Witness our treatment of Chili in 1892.

The dispute is in part historical, in part topographical, or, in other words, one to be settled by lawyers and surveyors, not by big guns. It has been so treated by all our diplomatists, and is so treated still, and the ascertainment of the facts is an essential preliminary to all judgment on the affair. A person who writes on it as Senator Lodge does in the magazines, or as the young men in the *Tribune* office do, with hardly any knowledge of these facts, is as ridiculous as your lawyer would be if, the minute you employed him on a difficult real-estate litigation, and before he had looked at your papers and proofs, he began to make it hot for your adversary in the newspapers by calling him a notorious robber and defrauder of widows. All this sound and fury, besides making us a ludicrous spectacle as a nation, seriously embarrasses our officials who are charged with the duty of deciding what part we shall take in foreign disputes, and who have all the available and most correct information about it on their tables. Whatever their faults and shortcomings, they are our chosen and accredited representatives, and the business of deriding them because they do not take a hand in other people's quarrels should begin only after they have publicly revealed their folly or stupidity.

As to our duty in such quarrels, neither the Monroe doctrine nor any other doctrine known among civilized men gives us the right to protect the South American states against the natural consequences of their own insolence and folly. If they quarrel with a bigger power, rob its subjects, or assault and insult its representatives, they must take the consequences, which are usually a fine with some sort of security till it is paid. There are eighteen Spanish-American states, with a population of about 50,000,000. Not one of them has ever exhibited the slightest desire to accept our influence or control except when it got into a row with some European power. They are independent sovereign states, *de facto* and *de jure*. We are in no way responsible for them, and our policy towards them has always been marked by a little dislike and a good deal of contempt, so that the notion that we are injured or insulted if anybody makes them pay their debts or indemnify people whom they have robbed or outraged, is worthy only of schoolboys who want to see a naval battle or read about it.

Whether Great Britain is proposing or "trying wrongfully to take and hold a large share of Venezuelan territory and hold it permanently as England's own" is something which we do not know, and we do not know anybody in the United States who does know. There cannot be less trustworthy witnesses on this subject than the Jingoes and the young newspaper men. Not only do they not know the truth, but they do not want to know it, if it is favorable to England. And we shall never make beneficent or rational contributions to international law until this presumption against England gets out of the heads of people who write or think on this class of questions. To a great many Americans, "abroad" or "foreign powers" always means England, and England is a monster who is always trying to seize more territory. When these publicists want to annex something, they always declare that England wants it too, and sit down and wait for the appearance of the British fleet. This is funny, but it disturbs the judgment, and makes a great deal of our talk on international affairs sound irrational. England is very much like other nations except in having a larger fleet. This superstition causes, too, a widespread but comic popular belief that anybody who opposes any bit of aggression or fanfaronade on our part, is either in the pay of Great Britain or is secretly working for her interest and aggrandizement, and he is therefore not listened to. This, together with the boyish eagerness for a big fighting force, like a fleet, that will not entail risk or inconvenience to people on shore, is rapidly causing us the loss of the great place in the international forum which we occupied in the beginning of the century, and which the founders of the government thought we would solidify and improve as we grew stronger. We need more men in public life, in the press, who seek national greatness in the sphere of mind and law, and resist the popular

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longing for more bloody corpses, desolated towns, and the general "hell of death and destruction" called war.

SHERMAN AND CARLISLE.

WE have adverted to some of the strange sayings of Senator Sherman in his recent speech at Massillon, Ohio. There are some things in that speech which are unaccountable on any theory except that Mr. Sherman is in his dotage. For example, this:

"When Cleveland was elected President with the avowed purpose of reducing the tariff, both houses of Congress were willing to authorize the issue of 3 per cent. bonds, to meet the anticipated deficiency, and these could readily have been sold at par. I introduced a bill for that purpose, *but it was defeated by the declaration of both Cleveland and Carlisle that it was unnecessary.*"

When we read this part of the Senator's speech, we had a clear recollection that either Cleveland or Carlisle had said the very opposite of what Mr. Sherman here affirms, in some message or report to Congress—*i. e.*, that one or the other had recommended to Congress the very thing which Mr. Sherman says was defeated by their declaration that it was unnecessary. We find by reference to Mr. Carlisle's regular reports that he twice urged upon Congress the very thing that Mr. Sherman says he rejected, thus:

"I recommend that the third section of the act to provide for the resumption of specie payments approved June 14, 1875, which confers authority upon the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and sell certain descriptions of United States bonds be so amended as to authorize him to issue and sell, at not less than par in coin, bonds to an amount not exceeding $200,000,000 bearing a lower rate of interest, and having a shorter time to run than those now provided for. . . . The United States 4 per cent. bonds payable in 1907 are now selling at a rate which yields investors less than 3 per cent. upon their cost, and I am confident that a bond bearing interest at the rate of 3 per cent., payable quarterly and redeemable at the option of the Government after five years, could be readily sold at par in our own country."

This was in the Secretary's first annual report, that of December, 1893. In his next one he repeated the recommendations in these words:

"As the power to issue and sell bonds already exists, and the present state of our financial legislation compels its occasional exercise, I repeat the recommendation made in my last annual report, that, in the interest of the Government and people, power be conferred on the Secretary of the Treasury to negotiate loans at a lower rate of interest and for a shorter time than are now allowed. . . . The law should be so amended as to conform to the conditions and requirements of the public credit and service at the present time, and I earnestly hope that Congress will take early and favorable action upon the subject."

We have carefully examined President Cleveland's annual messages which were sent to Congress simultaneously with Mr. Carlisle's reports. We find nothing in them which conflicts in any way with these recommendations. In the message of December, 1894, the following paragraph occurs, reinforcing the Secretary's recommendations:

"I desire also to earnestly suggest the wisdom of amending the existing statutes in regard to the issuance of Government bonds. The authority now vested in the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds is not as clear as it should be, and the bonds authorized are disadvantageous to the Government both as to the time of their maturity and rate of interest."

Now, in the light of these facts, what does Senator Sherman mean by saying that his bill for 3 per cent. bonds was "defeated by the declaration of both Cleveland and Carlisle that it was unnecessary"? It is not to be supposed that he intended to falsify the public records in such a bare-faced manner when the proofs were so easy of access. We can only account for such a statement as a lapse of memory, which is one of the commonest failings of old age.

The Philadelphia *Press* in a muddled way attempts to justify Senator Sherman. The *Press* says that the influence of Cleveland and Carlisle took effect after the bill had passed the Senate and gone to the House. The only member of the House whom it quotes in support of this contention is George Fred Williams of Massachusetts, who said: "I am not aware that the incoming Secretary of the Treasury has desired that this amendment be passed, or in any way identified himself with this amendment." It is quite true that Mr. Williams said this, but when the bill came back to the Senate, the House having non-concurred, Mr. Sherman embraced the occasion to show how much his own information was superior to Mr. Williams's lack of information, although he did not mention any names. He said:

"I drew this amendment as it now stands, and it was submitted to the incoming Secretary of the Treasury. He, having been formerly a member of the committee on finance and a member of the Senate, and being familiar with us all, came before the committee on finance and there stated the reasons why in his judgment it might become, in case of exigency, important for him to have the power to issue a cheaper bond. He expressed the hope and belief, and I am inclined to agree with him, that it might not be necessary to issue these bonds at all, but that, when the emergency came, *he must meet it as quickly as a stroke of lightning;* that there must be no hesitation or delay; if there should be a disparity between the two metals or a run upon the Government for the payment of the United States notes, he must be prepared to meet this responsibility in order to obtain coin with which to redeem the notes. That statement was submitted to the committee on finance in the presence of the honorable gentleman who is to hold the high and distinguished office of Secretary of the Treasury. I know of no man in the United States who is better fitted to hold that office than he. We were glad, indeed I was glad, that we could in any way aid him by legislation to meet the difficulties of his office. *No doubt his persuasive arguments,* together with my own firm belief, caused the committee on finance, which is very diverse in its views upon the question of free coinage of silver and gold, to agree with practical unanimity upon this provision of law. When I introduced it, I had no expectation whatever that there would be any opposition to it" (*Congressional Record*, pages 2330, 2331).

This was said on the 1st day of March, the session coming to an end on the 4th. Senator Gorman in the same debate confirmed what Senator Sherman had said, and he took occasion to contradict flatly the insinuation that Mr. Carlisle had no knowledge of or was in no way responsible for the measure under consideration. He said:

"Mr. President, after the statement of the Senator from Ohio, I feel that I ought to say a few words. This amendment, which was reported by the committee on finance, came here not only with the approval of a majority of the committee, but it was, as I feel authorized to say, the result of a consultation of those who are in control of the financial department of the Government and the gentleman who is within a few days to take charge of that department. I believe that it is due to all concerned to make that statement in view of the fact that it has been stated elsewhere in a legislative body that the incoming Secretary had no knowledge of or was not in any way responsible for the amendment. For one, I am not content to let the statements in the public press and the statements made elsewhere go unnoticed" (*Congressional Record*, page 2237).

The Philadelphia *Press* actually quotes this paragraph from Mr. Gorman's speech as though it were a confirmation of what Mr. Williams had said in the House, instead of being a contradiction of it.

It should be remarked that Mr. Williams in the House never pretended to speak for Mr. Carlisle. He merely said that he was not aware of this and that, and he had been careful to say by way of introduction that he spoke as an individual only. Yet the *Press* is not content with putting Gorman and Williams in the same team. It goes on to say:

"One word of contradiction by Secretary Carlisle of the statements made in the House by his party leaders, to the effect that he did not want authority to issue such bonds, would have secured the passage of the amendment. But he made no such denial. There are others besides Mr. Williams who can tell the reason why."

The truth is, that the 3 per cent. bond clause was killed in the House by the silverites, and especially by Mr. Bland's threat that he would defeat it by filibustering. On the 27th of February Mr. Bland announced his intentions in these words: "I say, Mr. Speaker, for one, that, so far as my voice and my vote are concerned, every parliamentary rule that I can resort to I will use to resist this insult of the Senate." Bland called it a revenue bill, which could originate only in the House, and therefore he considered it an insult to the House. The *Press* says that, in spite of Bland, "under the power of the Speaker's gag-rule committee, the amendment could easily have been brought to a vote." Perhaps so, but Mr. Carlisle was not the Speaker. That office was filled by Mr. Crisp, and if Mr. Crisp happened to agree with Mr. Bland (as he did generally on these questions), the "gag-rule committee" would have worked the other way. It was well understood at the time that Bland had the power to kill the whole bill (the sundry-civil appropriation) at that late day in the session, and that he would have done so without scruple. What communications, if any, passed from Mr. Carlisle to members of the House at this juncture, when the real question was that of killing the whole bill and perhaps making an extra session of Congress necessary, we do not know. Nor can any judgment be pronounced upon them unless

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they are produced textually. Considerable doubt is thrown on the existence of any such communications by a speech of Senator Gorman in the next Congress nearly a year later (January 31, 1894), in which he repeated his denial quoted above, thus:

"When the Senate passed that provision, and it was stated in another body which deals with appropriation bills that Mr. Carlisle, who was to be the Secretary of the Treasury, did not want the authority to issue 3 per cent. bonds, I rose in my place in the Senate, as the *Record* will show, and I stated without fear of contradiction that that provision had been agreed to by Mr. Carlisle, and that its defeat elsewhere and the attempt to hold Secretary Foster alone responsible for the desire to issue bonds was not justified by the facts, and was a gross injustice to Mr. Foster and to the now chairman of the committee on finance [Mr. Voorhees], as well as to the Senator from Ohio [Mr. Sherman], and all who supported the proposition."

This was said in the course of a debate with Senator Sherman. If Mr. Sherman had known anything to the contrary then—and he probably knew as much then as he does now—that would have been a fitting time to say it.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF AFRICA.

It seems but yesterday that Stanley emerged from the heart of the Dark Continent and told of his year-long wanderings and perilous descent of the Congo. Now the trader rides by railroad nearly half the distance between tide-water and Stanley Pool, and at this place buys a ticket by either of two lines of steamboats to stations fifteen hundred miles distant from the Atlantic. Farther south the Portuguese are working diligently, though with limited means, at the transcontinental road by which they once proposed to connect their possessions on either ocean, and the planters two hundred miles from the coast send their rubber, sugar, and coffee by rail to St. Paul de Loanda. The miner seeking the gold-fields of Mashonaland has the choice of two routes. He may take the train at Cape Town, and, from the present terminus of the northern road, almost a thousand miles distant, go by coach to any of the great mining centres. Or he may prefer the shorter land route from the east coast, and be carried by the Beira railroad to the very edge of the auriferous plateau. In his mining-camp near Fort Salisbury, which a few years ago was practically inaccessible to the white man, he reads the London papers only five weeks old. The Hindu merchant seeking his fortune in the British Central Africa Protectorate is transferred from the Bombay steamer at the mouth of the Zambesi to one of the fleet of the African Lakes Company's steamers, which, with a hundred miles "carry" around the Shire rapids, lands him on the shore of Lake Nyasa. If from thence he travels three hundred miles westward to the remote Lake Mweru, where Livingstone's wanderings ceased, even here the postman will bring him letters from his home in far-off India.

Rapid transit into the interior has not made so great progress further north. Only some thirty miles of the German railway from Tanga to the Victoria Nyanza are completed, and the money for the parallel English road to Uganda has but just been appropriated. The Italians have built twenty miles of a projected line from Massowah on the Red Sea to Kassala on the northwestern frontier of their colony of Eritrea. The grasp of the Mahdists on the middle Nile has been loosened, and any day we may hear that the water route from Egypt to the great lakes has been reopened. The other northern routes, from the Mediterranean ports into the Sudan, are still closed to white men; but the trans-Saharan railroad by which it is proposed to connect the Algerian system with the French lines pushing eastward from Sénegal and northward from the Guinea coast, has almost passed out of the realm of mere visionary schemes into that of possibilities.

The advance of civilization, then, into Africa is from every quarter, and in many places the goal is already reached. At the present rate of progress, in a few years the whole continent will offer no more difficulties to the traveller than India does now. It is not inconceivable—nay, more, it is probable—that in 1905 the Cook tourist on the Nile will not be obliged to turn back, as now, at the second cataract, but may keep up the river to Lake Albert, and thence by alternate rail and water to the mouth of the Zambesi or to Cape Town. Then the traveller around the world will not be confined to the Suez Canal or the passage round the Cape, but will have the choice of several routes across the continent. He may take the African lakes route from Chinde to Nyasa, and cross by coach or rail the British Protectorate, connecting at the Portuguese frontier with the trains of the Royal Company for the Atlantic seaboard. Or he may choose either of three roads to the Congo—the German Central, now being surveyed, from Dar-es-Salaam, opposite Zanzibar, to Lake Tanganyika, the German Northern to Lake Victoria, or the British Uganda railway past the magnificent snow-clad Ruwenzori range. At Stanley Pool he will be able to take the cars of the State Road to the head of navigation at Matadi, or, if he prefer, the all-rail route through French Congo to the port of Loango.

In other words, the barrier of desert and fever-haunted coast belt which has separated central Africa from the rest of the world since creation, has been finally and permanently broken down. And just as the water brought in artificial channels from the eternal snows of the Alatau Mountains is transforming the arid desert of Turkestan into a region of smiling villages and cultivated fields lined with shade and fruit-trees, so these wagon-roads, steamboats, and railways are but so many irrigating streams which will fertilize the mental and moral wilderness in which the negro lives. For that which has kept him in a state but a remove above the wild beasts who share with him his forests and grassy plains has been chiefly his isolation. With the in-rush of the white man into his solitudes, intent on gain though he be, and bringing with him the countless evils of civilization, but at the same time their antidotes, a new era has opened for Africa and the African. The full import to the world of this great fact it is impossible to grasp. This, however, may be said with confidence. It has increased the available cultivable land of the globe by a fifth and doubled the area within the tropics. That is, the sources from which man can draw his food supplies in the future have been almost indefinitely expanded. To what extent the opening of the country will add to his mineral wealth is still a matter of conjecture, but that the African highlands contain the precious and useful metals in abundance every traveller testifies. But of greater importance than these material advantages is the fact that the sum of human happiness will be immeasurably increased. These railways, with the stable government which is the essential condition of their existence, mean the absolute suppression of the greatest curse which has ever blighted man's growth, the slave-raid. They mean the raising of the standard of living, the creation of a knowledge of the rights of property, of the profitableness of labor, the dignity and value of human life to fifty million of our fellow-beings. They mean the binding together by common interests nations, tribes, and villages now mutually hostile. They mean the indefinite multiplication of such oases (even now happily numerous in the great wilderness) as the settlement of which we read in a British official report, that here "will be seen clean, broad, level roads, bordered by handsome avenues of trees, and comely red-brick houses with rose-covered verandas peeping out behind clumps of ornamental shrubs. The natives who pass along are clothed in white calico, with some gaudy touch of color superadded. A bell is ringing to call the children to the mission-school."

THE MOUNDS OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

For a hundred years and more the origin of these structures has been a subject of debate, and various theories have been brought forward at different times by way of accounting for them. Thus, for instance, we are told by one class of writers that they were built by the Toltecs; others ascribe them to the Aztecs, the Pueblos, etc., etc.; and then, again, there are those who assert that they were the work of a mysterious people who once dwelt in the Mississippi Valley, but who are now extinct. Differ as these theories do in certain particulars, they may all be classed under one head in so far as they are based upon the assumption that

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these remains (and under this term we include the earthworks of every sort, size, and description) indicate a phase of civilization to which, in point of artistic, religious, and political development, the Indian is said to have been unequal.

From this extreme view there has always been more or less dissent, though it is but fair to say that since the publication by the Smithsonian Institution, in 1848, of 'The Ancient Monuments of the Mississippi Valley,' Squier's theory as to the superior civilization of the mound-builders and the low condition of the modern Indians, together with its corollary as to the origin of these "monuments," has been accepted by a large majority of those who have written upon the subject. Indeed, so comprehensive is his statement and so clear and compact his reasoning, that, in spite of numerous errors of detail for which he was not always responsible, to say nothing of his adoption of a system of nomenclature which not only was erroneous in itself, but has been a prolific source of error in others, his book is still the great storehouse from which the advocates of the mound-builder theory draw their arguments. But while we yield to no one in our appreciation of Squier's great work, it is well to remember that he subsequently so far modified his views as to admit that "the earthworks of western New York were erected by the Iroquois or their western neighbors"; and that although he never changed his opinion in regard to the origin of the so-called "sacred enclosures," etc., of southern Ohio and elsewhere, yet even upon this point his conclusion has been successfully questioned by a school of ethnologists who do not find in the mounds, or in anything that has been taken from them, any indication of a higher degree of civilization than the Indians of the Mississippi valley, such as they were when the whites first came in contact with them, are known to have reached.

Among those who have been especially prominent in advocating this theory, Prof. Cyrus Thomas of the Bureau of Ethnology is easily first. Placed in charge of the department of mound exploration soon after its organization in 1881, he has had exceptional advantages for studying this problem; and to those of us who are familiar with the amount and character of the work that has been done in the library as well as in the field, it is needless to say that he has made the most of his opportunities. He has labored assiduously in every branch of the investigation, and though some of his contentions—as, for instance, the theory about "archæological areas and distribution of types"—are open to doubt, yet, in the main, his researches have led to decisive results. To enumerate a tithe of the difficult points he has cleared up would lead us too far astray; and we content ourselves with calling attention to the fact that, in the way of field exploration alone, hundreds of groups of earthworks have been examined, numerous graves, cemeteries, caches, and cave deposits have been opened, and "over two thousand mounds, including almost every known type of form, from the low, diminutive, circular burial tumulus of the North to the huge truncated earthen pyramid of the South, have been explored." In a word, "every variety of construction hitherto known, as well as a number decidedly different in detail," are said to have been examined, and hundreds of them, we may add, are figured in the twelfth annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology, issued this year.

Of the tangible result of these explorations the account is somewhat meagre, though enough is told to enable us to form an idea of the size and value of the collection. In the item of pottery, for instance, there are "1,500 specimens, including most of the known varieties and several that are new in form and ornamentation." Of implements and ornaments in stone, bone, copper, and shell there is a large and varied assortment, among which we recognize the carved shells and copper plates from the Etowah (Georgia) group of mounds, about which we have heard before. Of the great mass of these articles, however, so far as we are permitted to judge of their character, it may be safely said that while they tell us nothing new of the life of the people who made and used them, they do, when taken in connection with the graves and mounds in which they were found, give us a good picture of the arts and industries, manners and customs of the people whom it is the fashion to call mound-builders. Unsatisfactory as this result seems to be, it is, nevertheless, a step in the right direction, for it establishes a test or standard of mound-builder work, and thus marks out the course which the investigation must follow. Evidently, if it can be shown that at some time in the distant past there lived in the region in which these mounds occur a people who were in the same stage of development as the mound-builder—a people who, in other words, made and did all the things that he is known to have made and done—then the question as to the origin of these works may be regarded as settled, and the search for that interesting but somewhat elusive personage yclept mound-builder becomes a waste of time.

This in effect was the shape in which the problem presented itself to Thomas, and in solving it he adopted the comparative method—the only one which has thus far given positive results. Thus, for example, instead of indulging in idle disquisitions about the civilization of the Aztecs or the Pueblos, neither of whom can be shown to have ever held a foot of the region in which these mounds are found, he began his investigation with the Indians who were in possession of the valley when it was first visited by the whites, and instituted a comparison for the purpose of determining how far, in their arts and industries, manners and customs, as revealed in their implements and ornaments, or described in the early records, they surpassed or fell short of what we have termed the mound-builder standard. It was a crucial test, and demonstrated beyond the possibility of a doubt that these two peoples, admitting that they belonged to different races, had attained to about the same stage of development. In fact, as has been said elsewhere, the two classes of remains agree in every essential particular, not a single specimen having been taken from the mounds which the Indian could not have made, or might not have bought from his neighbors in Mexico or on the Atlantic Coast, with both of whom he carried on more or less traffic. Important as this agreement is, as a link in the chain of evidence that points to the identity of the Indians with the mound-builders, it is strengthened by the fact that the Indians are known to have built both mounds and earthworks; and when we add that they are the only people except the whites who, so far as we know, ever occupied the region in which these remains are found, it will be seen that there is ample ground for the conclusion that the mounds and enclosures of the Mississippi Valley, of every sort, size, and description, "were the work of these same Indians, or of their immediate ancestors." All other inferences are denied us until it can be shown that, at some time in the past, there lived in this valley a people, other than the Indian, who chipped flint, wove cloth, hammered metals, worked in stone, bone, and shell, manufactured pottery, built mounds and earthworks, and did all the other things that the mound-builder is known to have done.

FIELD EPIGRAPHY.

BOSTON, October 18, 1895.

THE world that sits in libraries knows little of practical epigraphy. Archæology, in these days, rests largely upon this science of the stones, and in every community of scholars the term epigraphy is partly apprehended, standing to men's minds for certain bulky volumes with thousands of entries, and an ever-increasing flow of pamphlets from the universities and academies of Europe. But before this literature can be issued, there is the work of the explorer in the field, the actual collector of the inscriptions. Of its details as well as of the fatigue and nervous waste of field-work in a semi-civilized land; of the insolence and often treacherous character of the inhabitants (as Boeckh says, *Turcis instantibus et impedientibus*); of the thousand circumstances that make against the perfect calm of mind and body which the epigraphist should bring to the inscription, M. Salomon Reinach, in a little book addressed to intending archæologists ('Conseils aux Voyageurs Archéologues,' Paris, 1886), has made mention with French grace and sympathy. In Crete, for some months, I tried the trade. Epigraphy there is epigraphy at its worst—and at its best. The conditions are exacting, but the field has been little worked.

The huge tomes of the work known by scholars as C. I. G. (*Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum*), begun half a century ago by the great Boeckh, the real founder of the science, and, in spite of perennial supplements and addenda, still far from completion, contain only a scanty sheaf of the stone records of Crete, derived from the most various sources—manuscript copies of medieval travellers in the days before epigraphy was a science, erroneous and untrustworthy; haphazard readings of local antiquaries, hardly more trustworthy; and, finally, the collections made, in passing, by the handful of modern explorers who have visited the island, often for other purposes. In later years much has been done for Cretan inscriptions, chiefly by the Italian scholar, Dr. Halbherr (whom I had the honor to assist), who has added to them by hundreds, and, to some extent, by a few scholars of Cretan birth.

Under the spade of the peasant, in building and in public works, the written records of the classical past are for ever coming to light. In Greece, Italy, and some parts of Turkey, the inscription surely finds its editor and its academic public, and goes on file into the vast repository of such documents, from which, some day, the archæologist is to build for the unborn the true story of antiquity. But in Crete, in a spot remote from university and printing-press, one cannot count upon these things. Again and again the ground must be covered, the peasant induced to yield his treasures, and the discoveries of each season made secure in the pages of a note-book until they can be studied and given to the world. Inscriptions, then, are gathered by trips through the country, far and wide. Arrived at a village, we ask the first person if there are γράμματα or "letters" to be found thereabouts. The chance is that he will lead us to the village church, and, after a careful survey,

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we shall discover old friends from the pages of C. I. G. which have been copied and recopied a score of times. Do not despair. Ask for the priest or the leading man of the village. In fact, any one who can read will be serviceable, for the educated will love to assist you with the stone and interpret your rendering to the admiring bystanders. If your peasant-guide has relations by blood or guest-friendship in the village, all goes well. Introductions follow, much wine is drunk, and the epigraphist finds his own. It is not always so. The villagers may be rude and insolent, and pretend they do not understand. But it is never well to take a denial. A show of coin, treating the crowd at the local café, or, as a last resort, the display of a pasha's firman, in Greek and Turkish, may do the business. Once, however, we spent days in futile negotiations for a glimpse of a stone, and never knew whether it really existed, hidden away in a cottage, or was a mere myth of a churlish peasant's brain. In Turkish regions more difficulty is experienced, and, in particular, stones in or near a house can hardly be examined, for the reason that the women must be removed before one can enter. This entails more trouble than the average Turk will take. The only solution is to have the stone, if portable, brought out to the street, where you may inspect it at leisure. The Greeks are almost always accommodating. Several permitted us to knock down whole pieces of their walls, and would take no remuneration.

The stones are found in all possible and impossible places—wherever the peasant discoverer cared to employ them. Two situations—the church and the ἀλώνη, or winnowing-field, enclosed with a low, circular wall of upright slabs—yield the most to the epigraphist. Ignorant always of their meaning, the finder yet prefers those stones which bear letters, and, fortunately for science, usually sets them in his building face outward. And yet, riding past the rough stone hovels of a Cretan village, one never knows what treasures the silent walls might yield! One little church at the village of Kastelli was fairly built of Greek inscriptions, of many periods and the most various states of preservation. Marble wears the best, but the ancient Cretans more often used, to our loss, the material that came to hand, a soft, brown limestone, extremely perishable. The interior of the church contained a large and most crabbed Roman imperial decree in Latin, and the tables in the chancel were *stelai*, or gravestones, of the pagans turned to that strange use. As for the ἀλώνη, you are sure to find in the vicinity of any vanished city the gray, lettered marbles leaning among the grasses or half sunk into the ground.

Now for impossible places. At first one is surprised to find an inscription ten feet down a well, moss-grown, and just recognizable in the dark and damp, where the mere cleaning of the stone means the toil of hours; or blackened with soot, in a chimney; or built into the arch of a dirty cottage, usually near the clay floor and plastered thickly with many whitewashings; or, sometimes, even in the coping of the roof-tops. Far afield in some lonely vineyard or sheep-run the rider spies a stone on the brown soil. Often a détour adds a new item to his note-book. In one way and another the stones wander far from their first setting; but ten or twelve miles from an ancient site may be put as the limit at which inscriptions will be found.

The actual process of copying varies with the stone. The inscription is washed, the moss and discoloration removed carefully with a knife; the locality, dimensions, and nature of the stone, the height and character of the letters noted, and the name of the owner of the property. Curiously enough, the actual reading is more a matter of eyesight than of scholarship—dependent on the physical condition of the moment. The pupil's eye may be keener than the master's, and even the opinion of a peasant is not to be rejected. A difficult stone must be read gradually, "line on line," with the most painstaking comparison of recurring letters and spacing. M. Reinach notes the danger of knowing too much; of anticipating, so to speak, the story of the stone, and of reading into a doubtful line some ready-made formula. Formulæ, however, and stereotyped ones, continually occur in later records, and a discreet knowledge of them is indispensable. One day the inscription baffles the student; the next, it reads easily, so much is the matter one of nerves and health. Of those inscriptions which do not yield even to such patience, or which are especially notable from any cause, the epigraphist will bear away a photograph or a verbatim copy by impression or *estampage*, as the French call the process known to English-speaking scholars by the clumsy term of "squeeze"; that is, an impression taken on dampened paper prepared for that purpose. Read from the back or dusted with rouge so that the depressions and shadows are accentuated, in the leisure of the library the squeeze may frequently be far more trustworthy than the stone.

Crete, remaining one of the fair provinces of the ancients still in the clutch of the Turk, is to-day a land of the Middle Ages. At the seaports there is a thin veneer of civilization; inland the life and manners of the past abide. You travel in the old fashion by horse and donkey across rude trails in the country-side. The island is imperfectly mapped, new villages appearing, and old ones, marked by the geographer, having disappeared in later insurrections. That familiar and now vanishing figure of travel in the Levant, the *agoyátes*, or dragoman, is here a necessity. He is a peasant, half-servant, half-guide, and rides upon a pack-horse loaded with clothes, rugs, coffee, sugar, photographic apparatus, and the large tin cylinder, or *tináki*, which contains rolls of paper for impressions. Sitting sideways on the heavily burdened animal, the *agoyátes* makes slow progress. His speed is that of the party, and fifteen miles is the average distance traversed in a day.

At night, wearied by travel or the nervous strain of work, you are received into a peasant's house in a strange village. Then come the hardest hours of field life. The body needs good food, and there is the tough boiled fowl and rancid olive oil. The mind needs to be let alone, and there is the fire of persistent questions from the assembled magnates of the village. Clothes, manners, and appearance are audibly criticised; yet it is still necessary to be polite. At last one lies down on the clay floor or the wooden platform beside the host and his family, and sleeps as he never sleeps in a bed.

It is all horseback-riding, fatigue, dirt, change of scene, adventure, and strange encounters with peasants, soldiers, country priests—all manner of primitive men—this life of the epigraphist; in its details quaintly like that of the American cowboy. Great also are its compensations. The fine air of the hills, the constant exercise, the occasional sense of peril are stimulative, and the body responds with a thrill. Mere physical existence becomes a pleasure. One is glad to know on what simple basis life is endurable, and in the mortification of the flesh there is an ascetic glow.

Intellectually, the experience is exhilarating. In one of his archæological essays, somewhere, Sir Charles Newton expresses the satisfaction felt by the scholar, hitherto familiar only with the books, in handling inscriptions, real documents—the newspapers and posters of the past. This can hardly be exaggerated. I remember finding by a well-side a stone in memory of one Menander, dead at fifty years and buried at the civic expense. Great names fallen low and country echoes of an imperial reputation enlighten these labors, and any silent stone may awaken the fancy. The marbles, with their clear-cut letters, traces of red often lingering in the deep notches; the archaic or local alphabets, so individual, so different from the stereotyped character of the books; the errors, omissions, corrections of the forgotten lapidary that make the inscription read like an ill-writ letter—into how close a touch with the living ancients these bring one! One bears away, too, many memories: of the flash of costume, of old-world folk gossiping in dialects, of puffy Turkish governors and astute Greek officials, of shepherds sitting silent among the ruins of ancient cities or driving their flocks over wind-swept hills. Perhaps the most vivid is of that hour, at sundown, when the Cretan girls repair to the fountain outside the village, and glide back, unconsciously classical, with pitchers poised firmly on their heads.

JOHN ALDEN.

FRANÇOIS TRONCHIN AND VOLTAIRE.

PARIS, October 9, 1895.

SUCH is the power of attraction of a great name that the Genevan Tronchins are among the numerous satellites which have been revolving round the world-wide reputation of Voltaire, and have been dragged down with him to posterity. They belonged to a family which had its origin in Provence. M. Henry Tronchin, who has given us very recently an interesting volume on the Councillor François Tronchin, informs us that his ancestors had a good place in the nobility of Provence as far back as the fourteenth century. In the sixteenth century they were among the first who espoused the cause of the Reformation. They were obliged to leave France during the religious wars. One of them, a cavalry officer, saved by a priest during the massacre of St. Bartholomew, took refuge in Geneva, and entered into the service of the Republic, which was then at constant war with the Duke of Savoy. His son was the godchild of Théodore de Bèze, and became his disciple and his friend. Théodore de Bèze left to Théodore Tronchin his library, which was all his fortune. This same Théodore Tronchin entered into relations afterwards with the famous Duke de Rohan, the last great military leader of the Protestants of France. In the eighteenth century we find the Tronchins among the powerful families of Geneva, which had become a sort of oligarchy. The legislative power was in the hands of a Council of Two Hundred, and the members of the "Petit Conseil," which had the executive power, were recruited among the members of this Council of Two Hundred. Practically, all the power and the patronage was in the hands of a few families, whose children always intermarried, and who formed a kind of aristocracy in the democracy instituted by Calvin.

Four members of the Tronchin family were

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conspicuous at the time when Voltaire came to live near Geneva. Most interesting to us is Dr. Théodore Tronchin. His father had been completely ruined by the failure of Law's bank, and it was probably for this reason that he became a doctor. He acquired a great reputation, and his name appears often in the memoirs of the eighteenth century. He was one of the first who practised vaccination in Europe and who adopted the ideas and methods of Jenner. The Duke d'Orléans, who was, as is well known, very progressive and what we now call advanced, sent for him at Villers-Cotterets, to have his children vaccinated, which appeared at the time a most daring and almost guilty experiment. Mme. d'Épinay was, after Voltaire, one of the most famous patients of Tronchin. People came to Geneva from all parts of Europe to consult him or be under his care. It is much to be hoped that M. Henry Tronchin will give us some day a volume on Dr. Tronchin as rich in original documents as the volume which he publishes now on the Councillor François Tronchin.

The Councillor was a man of modest fortune; he was for a short time a member of the "Petit Conseil," but he was a man of leisure, fond of the fine arts, of literature, an incessant correspondent. "His," says the editor, "was a physiognomy without much relief. He is less an original type than a somewhat casual example of a whole category of his contemporaries, men of the world with a smattering of philosophy, whose horizon was limited by the confines of the very polite and very artificial society in which they moved." After he had finished his studies, François Tronchin went to Paris, as was usual with young men of his condition among his contemporaries, and spent some time at the house of his brother Robert, who was a financier, and who had become a *fermier-général*. He tells us in an inedited manuscript that in 1722, when he was in the pit of the Comédie-Française, a very thin young man with a black coat and a long, natural head of hair passed near him. "I was sitting next to a man unknown to me, who asked him how he was getting on. 'Always on the go, always suffering,' was the sole answer, and I recalled it as I learned a moment afterwards that it was Voltaire who had just passed us. He never ceased 'going and suffering' in the fifty-six years before his death. I always knew this to be the case with him." Tronchin had a decided taste for the theatre, and he composed a tragedy, "Marie Stuart" (I wonder how many "Mary Stuarts" have been written), which was represented in 1734 first at the French Theatre and afterwards before the Court at Fontainebleau. In 1736 he married a young lady of Saint-Quentin, and established himself at Geneva in a little country-house where the Rhone leaves the city. He entered the Council of the Two Hundred, and was ever afterwards called Councillor.

Voltaire, finding himself banished from Berlin and virtually exiled from France, tired of his wanderings in Mannheim, Mayence, Strasbourg, Colmar, made the acquaintance of Robert Tronchin, the financier, at Lyons. To him he confided the greater part of his fortune, and started for Geneva with a letter to François Tronchin. He arrived there with his niece, Mme. Denis, on the 12th of December, 1754. The laws of Geneva did not allow any person professing the Catholic religion to own land in its territory, and it allowed foreigners to reside there only precariously, on a *permis de séjour*. François Tronchin obtained this permit for Voltaire, most of the Genevan magistrates being his friends or relations; but Voltaire, poor Catholic though he was, could not buy a house, and Robert Tronchin, the financier, became his intermediary for the acquisition of a country-house belonging to M. Mallet. The house was bought in Tronchin's name. "You know," wrote Voltaire to him, "how difficult it is for a stranger and good Catholic like me to make a bargain with the people of God." He offered to be his "concierge" as long as he lived. This negotiation was the cause of a long correspondence, which will be found at length in the volume now published, and in which Voltaire shows, with his usual inexhaustible wit, a contentious disposition which must have sometimes tried those who had no other wish but to oblige him.

As soon as he was in the "Délices" (such was the name of his house), he applied his activity to arranging and changing everything. He received a visit from Lekain, the famous actor, and equipped a small theatre. The consistory of Geneva now became uneasy. Calvin held the same ideas as Bossuet on the immorality of the stage, and his tradition was still respected. "All your respectable family," writes Voltaire to Robert Tronchin, "whom I love tenderly, have just left me . . . We played 'Zaïre' before the Tronchins and the Syndics. Calvin did not suspect that Catholics would one day draw tears from the eyes of Huguenots on the soil of Geneva. Lekain helped us well, Madame Denis marvellously performed *Zaïre*, and I represented the bonhomme *Lusignan*." Voltaire was working at the "Orphan of China," and wanted to try it on his little stage, when he heard that the ministers of Geneva had prohibited theatricals at the Délices, and he received an order to close his theatre.

Soon afterwards, his quietude was troubled by rumors—"ridiculous rumors," as he calls them—which were spread all over Europe. Copies of the "Pucelle" had been read in Paris, and Voltaire was accused of being the author of this too famous poem. Copies had been sent to Geneva, and a publisher at Lausanne was on the point of bringing out the poem. Voltaire took the simple means of denying that he was its author; he was even bold enough to begin a law-suit against an agent of the bookseller at Lausanne. After a while, Voltaire found the Délices too small, and bought Ferney, outside of the territory of the Republic of Geneva. He found the ground of Geneva not solid enough for his feet, amid the alarm caused by an article in the 'Encyclopædia,' said to have been inspired by him. Ferney was under the authority of Gex, and Voltaire became the *Seigneur* of Ferney, with all the privileges attached to the title. He had vassals, tithes to collect, law-suits to continue, which gave him an agreeable occupation. He could, however, act only for his niece, Madame Denis, for the estate had been bought in her name.

The two Tronchins, the Councillor and the financier, were his constant advisers and correspondents on an infinity of subjects. The editor has given us even the shortest notes written to them by Voltaire; we can but approve of this, for Voltaire shed his *esprit* at all times on all subjects. He was permanently in trouble; he jumped from Scylla to Charybdis. At Ferney, he wished to have the cross of the old cemetery removed from his sight. He was accused of having used very abusive language during the removal. The secular and ecclesiastical judges came to Ferney, made an inquest, and criminal proceedings were instituted against Voltaire. He placed himself under the protection of the parlement of Dijon. François Tronchin had to go to Dijon, and succeeded in getting the author of "Zaïre" out of difficulty once more. The publication of 'Candide,' which was written at Ferney, added new fuel to the fire. So did a number of anonymous pamphlets which bore the mark of this prolific writer. I have collected the first editions of 'Candide,' the masterpiece of Voltaire's novels, and have found as many as four, published under the name of Prof. Ralph in different countries. 'Candide' was burnt on the 2d of March, 1760, at Geneva, by the hand of the executioner. The 'Dialogues Chrétiens par M. V., . . . imprimés à Genève, 1860,' contained bitter attacks on the Genevan clergy. In a letter to Théodore Tronchin, Voltaire boldly denied their paternity. The pamphlet was burned by order of the Council. Voltaire became more and more angry with Geneva, "cette ville hargneuse," and with these "prêtres pédants" who did not allow their flock to take part in the comedies played at Ferney. Voltaire became by degrees an object of aversion to the Genevan patriciate. The only friend he kept was François Tronchin. He gave up the Délices in 1765. He was made very angry by the favor some of the Genevans showed to J. J. Rousseau, and writes to his friend (January 22, 1765): "You seem astonished that Rousseau should be a dishonest man. Have you not read the memoirs which I have read? You would have seen that he is neither good nor a philosopher; he is gloomy, ungrateful, false in his ideas, in his feelings, in his actions; in short, he conceals the soul of a criminal under the mantle of Diogenes."

Few of the readers of M. Henry Tronchin's book will take any interest in his ancestor's tragedies and his vain attempts to become a writer. As a picture-collector he was more fortunate; he formed successively two good collections, the first of which was bought by the great Catherine. He was in relations with the picture-dealers of Paris, and followed all the great sales of the times; his brother, the financier, had introduced him to most of the French artists, to Carl Vernet, to Soufflot the architect, to Pigalle the sculptor, to Falconet. He remained to the end the friend and correspondent of Voltaire, though his friendship grew somewhat cooler by degrees. François Tronchin lived long enough to see the total disruption of the frivolous and elegant society in which he had made so many friends. He celebrated his golden wedding on the 6th of April, 1786, and died after the terrible years of the Revolution and of the Terror, on the 7th of February, 1798.

Correspondence.

SCHOOL ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While I generally concur in the conclusions set forth in Prof. Goodwin's extremely valuable, as well as interesting, letter on "School English" in the last issue of the *Nation*, there is one point in it to which I take some exception, and to which I want to call attention.

I refer to that paragraph in which Prof. Goodwin says that "it is not the fault of the teachers who send students to our colleges" that the present state of affairs as respects written English continues; and, further, that it is impossible to take boys of from fourteen to sixteen "who have learned no systematic habits of study, and make scholars of them before they are eighteen or nineteen."

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While this is generally true, yet I cannot but think far more could be done in this direction, under other methods, than is now accomplished. The trouble with the existing system as revealed by the examination papers which come under the eyes of the visiting committee on English is, that in the preparatory schools a system of almost exclusively *oral* teaching is pursued to prepare boys for *written* tests. From the day the scholar leaves the preparatory school and presents himself for examination at Harvard, up to the day when he receives his baccalaureate degree—if he ever does receive it—the whole system now rests upon written examinations. The translations from Latin and Greek into English which have been submitted in the reports of the committee bring out, more clearly perhaps than could be brought out in any other way, the failure of those orally instructed when subjected to the test of written result. It is the old familiar lesson of the "spelling bee." When, formerly, the scholars in our grammar schools were stood up in rows and given words to spell, though they might spell them accurately in the class, it was found that, when called upon to write the same words down, the oral instruction had no practical connection with the written result. The wildest work was made by the best spellers with even the most familiar words.

It is precisely the same with the translation of the classics. Any visitor who has ever sat through a recitation in a preparatory school, and heard scholars stammer and bungle out an English rendering of Greek or Latin authors, knows what a piece of work they make of it. The translation is in no respect English. When, after recitations of this sort, these same scholars are from time to time told to sit down and make written translations, they are in much the same plight as the unfortunate children who, having been taught to spell orally, had a pencil put in their hands and were told to write out the same words. The last state was infinitely worse than their first—though that at the time seemed bad enough!

The defect in the system now in use in the preparatory schools, as revealed in the papers, is, therefore, that when, at the age of twelve, boys first go to those schools, they are not subjected to severe and constant training so far as written English is concerned. It is unnecessary and, indeed, inadvisable to give this training in the form of themes or stated written compositions. It should constitute a part, and a large part, of the regular daily routine work at the desk. English should thus be taught as an incident, and not as an end. When the committee on English at Harvard made its report of three years ago, they found among all the preparatory academies one school, and one school only, where "the preparation of English was carried on in every other subject. The translations from other languages were carefully criticised for their English, and the geometrical propositions were often rewritten many times on account of poor English." It is impossible to believe that, in a school where the rule was that a certain portion of the translations to be made from Greek and Latin every day should be written out, a scholar could stand up before the class and read aloud from his paper such singular performances as those printed by the committee. Such grossly defective results would at once become apparent, and the necessary remedy would have to be applied.

When a scholar presents himself for admission to Harvard, the advantage he has, if he feels at home and thoroughly self-confident with a pen or pencil in his hand, is enormous. On the other hand, the position of the unfortunate youth who sits down for the great test without that necessary training and practice which enables him to express his ideas easily in his native tongue, is something to be imagined. There is a feeling of forlorn helplessness in the situation which has in it a decided element of pathos. For this his preparatory school is responsible. He is in a strange position; and the position need not be strange.

So far as rudimentary English at Harvard is concerned, the existing condition of things has now been set forth by the visiting committee of the Overseers in two reports—the elaborate report of three years ago, accompanied with lithographic facsimiles, numbered 28 in the series; and the more recent report, numbered 49. The mere printed reproduction of the students' papers in the latter report gives a very inadequate idea of the real facts. But the facts call loudly for reform; and the reform to be effective must reach down into the primary schools. That which should have been done six years before admission to Harvard is now attempted in the freshman year.

The visiting committee of the English department is at present considering what step next to take. As I have said, the mere printing of the students' papers does not suffice. The only way to furnish a clear and unanswerable object-lesson is that adopted by the committee in their report of 1892—the production of a body of facsimiles. The trouble is that so doing is cumbersome and expensive. Nevertheless, it—and it only—does set forth the cold facts in a way which admits of neither denial nor extenuation.

It is not improbable, therefore, that, in their next report, the committee will, as in the report just presented they intimate they may do, take the papers of all the scholars who present themselves from two, if not four, of the leading and best considered academies which prepare boys for Harvard, and submit those papers in facsimile and in full. Not impossibly, schools and academies will be taken whose scholars exhibit the best and the worst results, and so put them in contrast. However expensive and cumbersome such a publication might be, it would, in the judgment of the committee, amply repay as an object-lesson both the money and trouble it involved.

With such a possible test in view, it might be worth while for teachers having the English department in the preparatory schools in charge to give more than a cursory examination to the reports I have referred to as already made. I can supply them, and would be glad to do so; or both reports can be obtained from J. Bertram Williams, the College Publication Agent, at No. 2 University Hall, Cambridge.

I am, etc., CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

23 COURT STREET, BOSTON, October 28, 1895.

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Report of the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College, noticed in a recent issue of the *Nation*, does not locate the blame for "the lamentably low average of the English exercises" and of "the examination-books in which Greek and Latin were rendered into the native speech." It leaves the college, the schools, and the "system" to divide the responsibility as best they may. It seems to me that the committee fails to discover the quarter in which the chief, if not the sole, accountability should be fixed; and I am happy to quote in support of my opinion the always interesting and influential judgment of President Eliot. He has already publicly expressed this view; but, so far as I have noted, the significance of it has not been fully emphasized. In a letter to me, written nearly a year ago, he says (the italics are mine):

"I hope you do not suppose that I had any disposition to complain of or to criticise American schools because American boys advance more slowly than European boys. *It may be partly the fault of the schools; it certainly is partly the fault of the colleges; but I believe it is chiefly the fault of parents and of unfavorable conditions of American society.*"

Whatever applies to the general work of schools applies *a fortiori* to work in English: the latter will never be profitably done without an endeavoring interest that the pupil assumes his right to excuse himself from; beyond that, no "system" has any extenuation to offer.

I fancy few schools now claim that their pupils do or can attain "a terse elegance of English expression by translating orally Greek and Latin." Those that do are certain to stultify themselves, and gratuitously at that. Whether they do one or both, neither consideration has any bearing on the literal, word-for-word and order-for-order method of rendering. For purposes of accuracy, in an age when the varying and diffusive devices for procuring interest dissipate accuracy, it is almost the last recourse; for impressing the Latin movement that is to make Latin prose-writing a possible realization, it is indispensable; it is not intended or expected to teach English, which is, after all, not learnt, but at best merely practised, in schools; only this method must be treated as a means, not as an end, for those who get far enough to see the end. It is better to be accurate, if awkward, as far as you go than to be elegant and untrue; and "free, original, and idiomatic renderings" of schoolboys are sure to be too untrue even for the present modest demands in grammar.—Very truly yours,

CASKIE HARRISON.

THE LATIN SCHOOL, 145 MONTAGUE ST., BROOKLYN, N. Y., October 14, 1895.

LECTURERS AND COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The question discussed in your editorial on Lectures before Colleges is one that has frequently been considered in college associations. The parties that engage in the controversy are, broadly speaking, the denominational and the undenominational institutions. The former contend that one of the important functions of their faculties is to exercise an oversight over the morals of those who come to them for instruction; the latter, that an educational institution of high grade is neither a reformatory nor the custodian of the character of its students. We are told, moreover, that a student is generally a person of mature age; that he stands in the same relation to the laws of the commonwealth with every other citizen, and if he transgresses them he *is* to be treated just like any other criminal. Everybody knows that this is the status of the German student at the present time, and there is reason to believe that his morals are on the whole better than they were when he was subject to the police power of the university authorities. There are, of course, in all American universities teachers like Prof. Ziegler of Strasbourg who take a deep personal interest in the moral welfare of the students, but there are also many who do not. The assumption is, that the

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young man who has not learned to obey the moral law by the time he is old enough to enter a university will never learn it, and the quicker he goes to the dogs, the better for the community at large. This is a practical application of the law of the survival of the fittest in the domain of ethics.

Students, especially those liberally supplied with money, are proverbially reckless. With their time largely at their own disposal, and without the restraints of the home or of some compulsory regular employment, they are prone to walk in forbidden paths. Those persons who make it a business to board and lodge students do so for the pecuniary considerations involved; and however much they may be incommoded by the bad behavior of their tenants, they feel that they cannot afford to offend them seriously and thus lose their patronage. There are doubtless cases, too, where patronage is quite as important to a college as it is to the keeper of a lodging-house, though there is reason to believe that at present very few of the former would hesitate to dismiss a disorderly student after the second serious offence.

Then, too, State universities are particularly liable to attacks for anything that may be construed into an infringement of the liberty of speech. If their students invite a dissolute or otherwise disreputable politician to lecture before them, and the faculty interferes, the outcry will at once be raised that this interference was prompted by political and not by ethical considerations. Questions of propriety and expediency, but especially of personal liberty, are so inextricably intermingled in cases of this sort that college authorities are usually content to let matters take their course as the easiest way to keep out of disagreeable notoriety. In our time, when the academic air is full of *Lernfreiheit* and *Lehrfreiheit*, when the students in a number of universities and colleges are not only allowed to study what they please, but even to elect whether they will study at all, it is hardly to be expected that the teaching corps of those institutions which seek the patronage of the larger public will be selected with much reference to the interest its members are likely to take in the moral welfare of those who come to them for instruction. We may soon witness the general adoption of a governmental code as laconic and simple as that which is said to be in force in a certain well-known American university: Students are prohibited from setting any of the buildings on fire and from killing any member of the faculty. CHAS. W. SUPER.

ATHENS, O., October 23, 1895.

FICTION IN THE BROOKLINE LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note in your issue for August 22 (p. 134), beginning, "The head of the Public Library at Brookline, Mass.," was published while that officer was in Europe, and I have supposed this was the explanation of the fact (if it be so) that you have not been asked to retract the statement with which the note ends: "This library keeps in circulation a full line of the trashiest novels in existence."

I regret that no one authorized to speak for that library has protested against this extreme overstatement, but would like, at this late date, to ask you to do better justice to one of our most representative smaller public libraries, and so to the general practice of our libraries in the matter of fiction. It is simply untrue that the library (as represented in its catalogue of fiction under review in your note) keeps either "the trashiest novels in existence" or a "full line" of that moderately trashy fiction of which it has some representatives. The authors whose names, appearing in this catalogue, caught your eye and led to this sweeping accusation, are about four, viz, Mrs. Southworth, Mrs. Stephens, Mrs. Holmes, and "The Duchess." (If there are others whose names you think would better not appear in such a list, you would confer a real benefit upon our library fraternity if you would name them, and so help us in our efforts to get a consensus of the best opinion as to where we are to draw the line.) Now this quartet of *women writers do confessedly write trash*, but I submit that it is far from being the "trashiest kind in existence." And to call the seventy-four titles given under these names collectively (very much less than all their works) a "full line of the trashiest kind," approaches hyperbole of a dangerous sort. It may or may not be best for the public libraries to circulate any trash - on that point there are differing opinions among equally competent and well-meaning librarians and library directors. But that a catalogue which presents almost an honor-roll of writers of sound and wholesome fiction should, by its inclusion of so small a modicum of (I repeat, *not* "the trashiest") trash, bring such a library as that at Brookline under so severe a reproach as you have visited upon it, is, to use moderate terms, at least regrettable. W. I. FLETCHER.

AMHERST COLLEGE LIBRARY, October 21, 1895.

[It seems to be merely a difference of opinion between us and Mr. Fletcher as to what constitutes "trash." We did not say that the Brookline Library contained a majority of trashy novels, or that the greater part of its fiction was trash, but we maintain that it has the most trashy: we have always heard the works of Mrs. Southworth cited as the type, the extreme form, of trashiness. We noticed the presence of these books in the Brookline Library with surprise, because that town is much above the average in cultivation, having no very poor or factory population. The constituency of the Salem Library is, we believe, below that of Brookline in this respect, yet none of the authors referred to are represented in its catalogue (August, 1895), nor in that of Peoria, Ill. (1894), with a population nearly four times as great. We may add that we expressed no opinion as to whether "it may or may not be best for the public libraries to circulate trash."—ED. NATION.]

"DISCORDANT CHURCH UNITY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit a few remarks upon your editorial in No. 1582 (Oct. 24) with the above title? I would state in passing that the convention met in Minneapolis, not in Milwaukee, and that "the great debate," as it has been called, took place on a report from the standing committee on amendments to the constitution. Thus it was a radical change in the constitution of the church, and not merely the report of a special committee, that was rejected. It is not objection to the Prayer-Book that keeps members of other denominations out of the Protestant Episcopal Church. On the contrary, the use of the Prayer-Book constitutes the chief attraction for very many, as the increasing use of liturgical forms by other Christian bodies well shows. If church unity ever comes, it will come on the basis of liturgical worship.

You are, however, very right in saying that there is no great demand for such unity, and certainly, until the desire is aroused, the object cannot be attained. The discussion, able as it was, appeared to the undersigned purely academic and unpractical. As was well said by Mr. Biddle of Philadelphia, in his witty speech in opposition to the amendment, "it was a dream without its iridescence." Perhaps in the course of time it may become more than a dream. In the words of the sanguine author of the amendment, the distinguished rector of Grace Church, New York: "It might take twenty-five years, but it would come." For such a glorious result all Christian people will pray, and will be well satisfied if it comes in twenty-five years. JAMES M. GARNETT.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA., October 25, 1895.

THE DECORATION OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent complaint of disturbance to readers by sight-seers in the Boston Public Library is doubtless well taken from the student's point of view. But the mural decorations of this splendid building have, it appears to me, as well as the books, an educational mission. The pictures thrust and repeat the thrust of an unavoidable impression upon that large class who need, more than aught beside, to have their imagination stimulated or their complacent bourgeois conception of beauty and reality intimidated. No art museum accomplishes just this, because it reaches only those who intentionally seek its teachings. F. E. P.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., October 28.

Notes.

FURTHER announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are: 'The Gold Diggings of Cape Horn: A Study of Life in Tierra del Fuego and Patagonia,' by John R. Spears of the N. Y. *Sun*; 'Sketches from Concord and Appledore,' by Frank P. Stearns; 'The Evolution of Horticulture in New England,' by Daniel D. Slade, M.D.; 'The History of the Foreign Policy of Great Britain,' by Prof. Montague Burrows; and 'Cretan Pictographs and Præ-Phœnician Script,' by Arthur J. Evans, keeper of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford.

George H. Richmond & Co., 12 East Fifteenth Street, have in press for immediate publication a sumptuous edition of Henri Beyle's romance, 'La Chartreuse de Parme,' for the first time rendered into English. It will be in three volumes, with thirty-two etchings by G. Mercier, from designs by V. Foulquier, and an etched portrait of the author. The edition is limited, as is that of a 'Letter from Capt. Cuellar to His Majesty Philip II., dated October 4, 1589,' now first translated into English by Henry D. Sedgwick, Jr. Froude makes constant reference to this letter in his 'Spanish Armada,' and it is designed to be the first of a series of historical tracts relating to the Spanish Armada.

'The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages,' an important work by Hastings Rash-

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dall, M.A., and 'Electric Wiring,' by Russell Robb, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

Edward Arnold has nearly ready 'Studies in Early Victorian Literature,' by Frederic Harrison, and the first of a Pioneer Series of novels, 'The Demagogue and Lady Phayre,' by William J. Locke.

D. Appleton & Co.'s second list of autumn announcements includes 'Greenland Icefields,' by Prof. G. Frederick Wright; 'Movement,' by E. J. Marey; 'Pioneers of Science in America,' edited by Dr. W. J. Youmans; and 'Old Faiths and New Facts,' by W. W. Kinsley.

D. O. Haynes & Co., New York, have undertaken an imperial octavo, 'One Hundred Years of American Commerce,' under the editorship (or should we say the "protection"?) of Chauncey M. Depew. One hundred Americans will tell the patriotic story.

Thomas Whitaker will place on the American market a limited number of copies of a profusely illustrated work on the 'Episcopal Palaces of England.' The drawings are by Alexander Ansted.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish 'The Witness of Denial,' by Vida Scudder, and a new edition of George Eliot's novels in twenty-one volumes, 16mo, illustrated by photogravure.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will bring out directly 'Principles of International Law,' by Prof. Thomas J. Lawrence, lately of the University of Chicago.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces "The California Authors Series," beginning with 'In the Sanctuary,' by A. Van der Naillen.

The London Bibliographical Society's forthcoming issues for the current year are five in number, namely, part ii. (and last) of vol. ii. of the Transactions, and part i. of vol. iii.; Mr. Ashbee's Iconography of Don Quixote; Mr. Duff's Hand-lists of books printed by Wynkin de Worde, Notary, R. & W. Faques, and J. Skot; and a facsimile of Ratdolt's Trade-list, by way of supplement to Mr. Redgrave's Ratdolt.

No more cheerful and solidly elegant volumes are within sight than the third and fourth of North's Plutarch's Lives (ninth and tenth of the "Tudor Translations" of David Nutt, London). We have already paid tribute to this admirable enterprise. We must report progress also in the case of two other beautiful series, the Dent-Macmillan Defoe, which makes two volumes of the Life of Colonel Jacque; and the Temple Shakspere, which now adds "Hamlet" and "King Henry VIII." Mr. Aitken summarizes the story of Colonel Jacque, which has to do with Virginia and negro slavery among other things, and appends two social pamphlets by Defoe which are a good deal more than padding, though they eke out the second volume. Take this passage from "Everybody's Business is Nobody's Business," which has been already appropriated for Dr. Murray's Dictionary, and will be quoted again there: "The next great abuse among us is, that, under the notion of cleaning our shoes, above ten thousand wicked, idle, pilfering vagrants are permitted to patrol about our city and suburbs. These are called the black-guard, who black your honour's shoes, and incorporate themselves under the title of the Worshipful Company of Japanners." Finally, we note the appearance of two more volumes in Mrs. Garnett's translation of Turgeneff's novels, namely, 'A Sportsman's Sketches,' or 'Annals of a Sportsman,' as an American edition has accustomed us to designate these short tales, full of the feeling of the open air, and charged with pictorial criticism of Russian institutions.

The Messrs. Putnam have surpassed themselves in their "Malta Edition" of Marryat's 'Midshipman Easy,' which is generously printed and very tastefully bound. Mr. Zogbaum's pen-and-ink vignettes are truly decorative; more so, to our thinking, than his full-page wash drawings. We get rather show than substance in the two volumes of Miss Porter's 'The Scottish Chiefs,' on which T. Y. Crowell & Co. have lavished a gaudy covering, with small regard to typographical comeliness.

Two miniature editions come to us from Oxford, on the famous thin paper of the University Press (New York: Macmillan). One is a six-volume set of Scott's Poetical Works in a neat box with its table of contents upon the lid. The type is by no means trying, even in the notes, and the manufacture throughout is eminently pleasing. The other is the *tour de force* of 'The Imitation of Christ' for the vest-pocket; a tiny volume, little more than an inch square, yet containing 576 pages.

In line with the Erasmus revival participated in by Mr. Froude among other scholars, is a reprint of Mrs. Anne Manning Rathbone's 'Household of Sir Thomas More,' which dates back to the beginning of the present half-century. The American publishers of this pretty volume, open-lettered and illustrated with slight pen sketches and Holbein's drawing of the head of More, are Charles Scribner's Sons. The Rev. W. H. Hutton furnishes an introductory abstract of More's career, his religious affiliations and companionship, and does well to quote some apt and still timely remarks of his on the education of women: "It mattereth not in harvest time whether the corn were sown by a man or a woman; and I see not why learning in like manner may not equally agree with both sexes."

The same firm remind the public of the existence of Mr. Clarence Cook's 'The House Beautiful: Essays on Beds and Tables, Stools and Candlesticks'—articles to which the æsthetically minded still need, as eighteen years ago, to devote their attention; but the scope of this helpful work is much broader than is indicated by the sub-title. Mr. Cook's practical advice, assisted by numerous cuts, is conveyed in a literary style too rare in such a connection, and his book remains the tasteful product of the printer's art that it was originally.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have rolled into one illustrated volume Mr. George Cary Eggleston's 'American War Ballads and Lyrics,' which it is only necessary to remark go back to the colonial wars. The get-up is very pleasing.

To their enviable "Cambridge Edition" of the complete Poetical Works of Longfellow and Whittier, has just been added by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. the 'Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning,' brought within the compass of 1,000 pages, save for the poet's essay on Shelley printed as an appendix, the notes and illustrations. The type is necessarily small, but the press-work is excellently clear, and the convenience of this collection between two covers speaks for itself.

Mr. Noah Brooks has brought together in book form the entertaining articles on 'Washington in Lincoln's Time' which originally appeared in the *Century* (The Century Co.). Like all the work from the DeVinne Press, this attractive little volume is easy to read, with its large, clear type, good paper and press-work. The matter of the book is well worth its permanent form, for it is a vivid and faithful picture of the capital in war-time, as seen by a newspaper correspondent who had more than common facilities for seeing and hearing all that was made public, with occasional peeps behind the scenes. It is, besides, very well and clearly written, in English often terse and vigorous, and has a good many descriptions of persons and things that are worthy of a permanent place in the public gallery of portraits and historical scenes.

A small but comprehensive manual is Mr. Charles Collins's 'Greenhouse and Window Plants: A Primer for Amateurs' (Macmillan). In it may be found lists of plants suitable for various conditions indoors, and all the information that would be needed by an amateur in the cultivation of ordinary plants at home. In following directions here given, some allowance must be made by Americans for the difference between our climate and that of England. It is sincerely to be regretted that the author of so useful a little book died untimely before its publication—a fact mentioned in the preface.

The October number of the Norwich (Conn.) Library Bulletin includes in a list of American historical novels 'Personal Recollections of the American Revolution,' by Lydia M. Post, adding that Winsor mentioned the book as being what it purported to be, but that contemporary critics spoke of it as a fiction. On referring to the book, it seems that it was published in New York in 1859, and was "edited" by one Sidney Barclay, under whose name, with no suggestion that it is a pseudonym, Kirk chronicles the 'Recollections.' Neither he nor Allibone mentions Post, although Sabin in his 1868 volume gives Barclay as a pseudonym, with cross-reference to real name. Mr. W. M. Griswold makes the same omission in his 'List of Historical Novels' (1895). He quotes, however, a contemporary criticism which asserts that the book, though a good imitation of the style of the period described, was a fiction. The 'Narrative and Critical History of America' cites it twice, once as written by Barclay, once by Post. As the author's middle name was Minturn, it is probable that she was a daughter of Dr. Minturn Post, whose works Allibone mentions. The introduction of an editor (in this case "Barclay") was a common device to give *vraisemblance* to a work purporting to be a genuine record.

Dr. Schweinfurth has recently written to the *Zeitschrift für Aegyptische Sprache* to complain of the wanton and ruthless destruction of monuments and remains which is now going on in Egypt. His letter discloses a most painful state of things. Not much will be left, he says, after a few years of such ransacking as is now going on. Ignorant and careless explorers are pillaging whole cemeteries, digging up and throwing away many things which are really of great value, merely because they are not objects which would especially strike the eye of the visitor at the Gizeh Museum, or bring in much money to the dealer in antiquities if offered for sale to foreigners. No records of the discoveries are kept, not even such important ones as those which designate what objects were found together. Dr. Schweinfurth lays the blame for this vandalism not only upon the curiosity-dealers, but also, and heavily, upon the authorities of the Gizeh Museum. Ignorant natives are sent out to make excavations without any proper supervision; and, even in cases where trained Europeans are present, the work is often carelessly done. He urges that the Museum should give over further digging, at least for a time, and devote itself to the cataloguing and arrangement of its already vast collections, and to the preservation of such monuments as still remain intact.

We call the attention of students of the classics to an article of over fifty pages on 'Le

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Navire *Argo* et la Science Nautique d'Apollonios de Rhodes,' which M. H. de la Ville de Mirmont, the French translator of the 'Argonautics' of Apollonius, contributes to the September number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*. The author treats, with great fulness, of nautical matters so far as reference is made to them both in the work of the Alexandrian poet and in the Homeric poems as well. From the abundance of his erudition he sometimes throws new light upon disputed points, sometimes furnishes additional proof as to problems solved—as in the case of the Homeric πρότονοι, the forestays of the mast. Apollonius did not write for the public but for an élite of scholars; no such anachronisms as the Greek tragedians made use of to adapt themselves to an audience of contemporaries are found in his poem. He restores in its primitive form the ship of the 'Odyssey' and the 'Iliad.' Students of Homer can therefore not fail to be interested in M. de Mirmont's treatise.

Ever since the lamented death of Pasteur a very lively interest has been manifest in Paris as to who will be chosen to succeed the great savant as director of the Institute in the Rue Dutot. This is a question which can be decided only by the Board of Directors of the Pasteur Institute, a body made up in about equal numbers of men of science, like MM. Duclaux, Roux, and Brouardel, and laymen like M. Jules Simon and Baron James de Rothschild. It is not likely that there will be a meeting of this board before the close of the festivities of the centenary of the Institute of France. The general opinion seems to be that M. Duclaux will be chosen as director in the place of Pasteur, and that M. Roux will take his place as sub-director. M. Duclaux is the oldest sub-director of the Pasteur Institute, and has already on various occasions acted as director *ad interim*. He is a great savant, of extreme modesty, and well known to the scientific public by his works and discoveries, some of which were made in fields where Pasteur himself had won laurels. The names of MM. Bertrand and De Lapparent, mining engineers, and of M. Dufet, professor at the École Normale, are mentioned in connection with the succession of Pasteur as member of the Académie des Sciences. All three are authors of important works in mineralogy or physics.

Our note on p. 275, referring to Hodgkin's 'Italy and Her Invaders,' was not, as a correspondent reminds us, sufficiently explicit. Volumes v. and vi. of that work, recently issued, are not, as we seemed to imply, an amplification of an earlier edition.

In our review, last week, of "Recent Poetry," we inadvertently misprinted, on page 297, the name of the author of 'First Poems and Fragments.' It should have read *Philip* Henry Savage. We also neglected to credit Mr. Wharton's 'Sappho' to the Chicago publishers, A. C. McClurg & Co.

—A couple of years ago we noticed with some misgivings and many caveats a book published in London by a certain Dr. William Wright, 'The Brontës in Ireland; or, Facts Stranger Than Fiction,' in which the author not only professed to trace the history of four generations of Irish Brontës, but undertook to prove that the plot of 'Wuthering Heights' was founded on family history, and that the other Brontë novels had likewise an Irish origin. In the *Westminster Review* for October, the Rev. Angus Mackay finds it an easy task to show that this book is one of the most charming tissues of absurdities that have yet seen the light. One of the myths of Dr. Wright is his story of how Hugh Brontë, one of the brothers, set out, shillelagh in hand, to find and to chastise the *Quarterly* Reviewer who had traduced his niece. This interesting story naturally found its way into almost every newspaper in Great Britain, and it will probably continue to be told as fact for many a long year to come; in America, a variant upon it has been produced in which the hero of the tale is Charlotte's brother, Branwell, although this poor fellow was dead and buried before ever the *Review* article was written. Mr. Mackay has been able to show with perfect conclusiveness that this tale, in spite of its taking quality, is absolutely apocryphal. As to the main theory, there is nothing of it left, and the wonderful genius of Charlotte and Emily Brontë remains as inscrutable as ever.

—The Report of the Principal Librarian of the British Museum (London: Eyre & Spottiswoode) upon the progress of that institution during the year 1894 shows that many valuable additions have been made to the collections of printed books, manuscripts, prints and drawings, Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities, Greek and Roman antiquities, British and mediæval antiquities, coins and medals, as well as to the natural-history collections. Of items that might be classed under the heading Americana the following were among the year's acquisitions: A "Manumission to a Manuduction," Leyden, 1615, by John Robinson, the chief promoter of the colonization of Massachusetts by the Pilgrim Fathers. Mr. Richard Garnett, the keeper of printed books in the Museum, describes this acquisition as being "absolutely unique." He further observes that "this tract has not hitherto been included in Robinson's collected works, as no copy could be met with." Among books enriched with manuscript notes, Mr. Garnett mentions a copy of Southey's 'History of Brazil,' given by the author to Coleridge, with the autographs of both, and marginal notes by Coleridge in the first volume. Another book so enriched is the American edition of Tennyson's 'Maud,' 1855, with the last stanza of the poem as now printed, which did not exist in the earlier editions, in the poet's handwriting, and preceded by the commencement of two cancelled versions; "proving," Mr. Garnett observes, "that it was there written down for the first time." Acknowledgment is made in the report of a presentation by Col. H. S. Olcott of Secretary Stanton's proclamation offering $100,000 reward for the apprehension of the assassin of President Lincoln. The Department of Coins and Medals acquired a rare brass medal of Admiral Vernon, 1739, with the inscription, "In Portobello there's not his fellow." It will be remembered that Lawrence Washington served under Admiral Vernon at Portobello, and that it was in admiration of his old chief that the young Virginian called his place Mount Vernon, leaving the property, on his death, to his younger brother George, as whose home it became famous throughout the world.

—"Propriété Littéraire" is printed across the broad back of the last volume issued of the encyclopædic "Pandectes françaises : Nouveau répertoire de doctrine, de législation et de jurisprudence" (Paris : Chevalier-Marescq & Cie.) ; but upon examination hardly more than one-third of the 847 closely printed quarto pages are found to relate to copyright, the remainder dealing with patents and designs. The protection accorded to the literary or artistic expression of a thought by copyright, and the monopoly of the use of an idea, through its practical application, intended to be secured by the law of patents, are so distinct in principle that they are hardly to be grouped together, except as both may be said to create property in intellectual productions. Practically, also, there are objections to the common habit of dealing with these two subjects in one book. Their commingling in the present volume is the more vexing to the copyright student because, after being saddled with so much material relating to patents, he is still obliged to supplement the literary-property matter by going to other volumes of the series to learn what is said concerning the protection of posthumous works, architectural productions, and dramatic copyright. More than eighty pages are devoted to international legislation and jurisprudence, but the Norwegian copyright act of 1893 is omitted, and no mention is made of the international copyright relations entered into by the United States in consequence of the Act of March 3, 1891, though the provisions of that law are stated. The French citations come down to the middle of 1893. A bibliographical index includes nearly two hundred French words relating to copyright and patents, but the titles are very much abbreviated; and as neither the places of publication nor the dates of issue are given, this material is almost useless. These shortcomings stated, it is to be added that no one desiring to obtain a thorough knowledge of the theory and practice of French jurisprudence relating to patent law and copyright can afford to be without this volume, which can be had separate from the series at a price of 25 francs.

—"A park in the open ocean"; "a garden in the sea"; "a bit of southern California anchored off shore"; "an isle of summer even in winter"—these are a few of the epithets bestowed by Charles Frederick Holder on Santa Catalina Island, in a little book of 125 pages named after its subject and recently published by C. A. Murdock & Co., San Francisco. Mr. Holder believes that as an all-the-year-round health resort Catalina Island has perhaps no equal, its climate lacking even the few changes of the mainland. In six years frost was seen but once at Avalon, the principal village on the island, and sea-bathing can be indulged in all the year round, which is the more remarkable since at San Francisco the ocean is too cold for a bath even in midsummer. Nor is its climate the sole attraction of this California island. At least 340 days in the year can be spent by the invalid out of doors; and if he is fond of mountains, flowers, hunting, and fishing, he has endless sources of amusement. There are numberless cañons to explore, and the list of plants growing on the island includes 512 species, 26 of which have not been found on the mainland. Quail-hunting on the mainland is not what it was ten years ago, but on Catalina these birds are as abundant as ever. The principal pastime, however, is fishing. At Avalon "the biggest man is he who catches the biggest fish," and Mr. Holder's chapters "On the Trail of a Jew Fish" and "Rod and Reel Fishing" give a good idea of the exciting nature of this sport. Nor is there a lack of food for the intellect. The Indians who inhabited this island when first discovered by Europeans appear to have been of a superior type, and although tons of their implements have been carried off, the explorer may still find many artistically shaped objects belonging to this mysterious people, who once had their villages in every cañon, subsisting on fishes and aba-

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lones. It is only within the present century that some light was obtained regarding these early inhabitants, through the discovery of some papers in a library at Madrid, giving an account of the voyage of Cabrillo. The island has belonged successively to Spain and Mexico, which latter granted it to a Governor Pio Pico, who deeded it to Nicolas Covarubias, from whom it was purchased by James Lick. At present it is the private property of the Banning Brothers of the Wilmington Transportation Company, who are doing all in their power to make it a pleasant resort for tourists and invalids, while taking measures against the ruthless destruction of the animal life to which Catalina owes so much of its charm.

—According to the latest (forty-seventh) issue of Prof. Ascherson's 'Deutscher Universitäts-Kalender' (Berlin: Simion), the whole number of persons attending lectures in German universities during the winter semester of 1894-'95 was 33,021, of whom 8,755 were in attendance at Berlin, 1,587 at Bonn, 1,350 at Breslau, 1,168 at Erlangen, 1,216 at Freiburg, 556 at Giessen, 843 at Göttingen, 775 at Greifswald, 1,643 at Halle, 1,230 at Heidelberg, 667 at Jena, 532 at Kiel, 737 at Königsberg, 3,112 at Leipzig, 852 at Marburg, 3,561 at Munich, 421 at Münster, 420 at Rostock, 980 at Strassburg, 1,184 at Tübingen, and 1,492 at Würzburg. At Berlin, however, the matriculated students numbered only 5,631, the remaining 3,724 being *Hospitanten*, or persons who had received permission to attend lectures without being enrolled as *cives academici*; at Leipzig there were 127 *Hospitanten* and at Munich only 86. In the law department (including cameralistics and forestry) there were at Berlin 1,667, at Leipzig 985, and at Munich 1,230 students; in the medical department (including surgery and pharmacy) at Berlin 1,220, at Leipzig 752, and at Munich 1,168; in the philosophical department (including philology, mathematics, etc.) at Berlin 1,660, at Leipzig 856, and at Munich 700. In theology, Halle still takes the lead, having 552 students, whereas Berlin has 484, Leipzig 392, and the Catholic universities of Breslau, Freiburg, Würzburg, and Munich have respectively 245, 215, 128, and 152. Münster, which is not a fully developed university, being in reality only a Catholic school of theology with a philosophical faculty attached, has 276 theological students. In the number of professors and tutors Berlin stands first, having 377, whereas Leipzig has 195, and Munich 171. Among the universities which are German in character, but not in nationality, Vienna holds the highest rank, with 6,714, of whom 2,158 are *Hospitanten*, and 350 professors and tutors; then come Graz with 1,552 students, Innsbruck with 1,008, Geneva with 784, Zurich with 783, Berne with 712, and Bâle with 527. The newly fledged and as yet merely nominal University of Lausanne registers 516 students, most of whom are no further advanced than the pupils of a German gymnasium.

A HISTORY OF EARLY ENGLISH LAW.

The History of English Law before the Time of Edward I. By Sir Frederick Pollock and Frederick William Maitland. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1895.

THE period covered by these volumes is that of Kemble's 'Saxons' and the earlier portion of Reeves's 'English Law,' the age of Glanvil, of Bracton, of the establishment in England of a legal profession and of many legal institutions, practices, and habits of thought which have survived to the present day. With Edward I. begins the long series of our law reports, and the reign of the "English Justinian" has always been regarded as marking the opening of a new legal era. To give life and meaning to the legal history of the two centuries succeeding the work of the Conquest, has involved not merely an examination of hundreds of early records to interpret which a special education is required, nor of a library of books, modern and ancient, authentic and unauthentic, for the use of which a special training of the judgment is necessary. For the work done here an ear for the meaning of words and terms of art as delicate in its way as that of a musician, and an historical imagination and sympathy strong enough to enable one not simply to conceive of a state of society and law wholly different from ours, but of attitudes of mind and habits of feeling and reasoning wholly at variance with ours, have been needed. Sir F. Pollock, in a generous note to the preface, says that "by far the greater share of the execution" belongs to Mr. Maitland, and to those who are familiar with the latter's writings in legal periodicals, his hand in the work will be readily apparent.

It is difficult to speak of the book in terms which will not seem exaggerated. It is a genuine mine of information and monument of patient and accurate research. To review or criticise it in detail is out of the question; the critic would first need to devote a lifetime to the examination of the materials out of which it is made. It will be more to the purpose to give a brief account of the manner in which the authors deal with certain points of general interest. To convey an idea of the scope of the work we may say that it deals with Saxon law, Norman law, and incidentally with Roman and canon law, with primitive law generally, with the English law of property, contract, and person in the early Middle Ages, with ownership and inheritance, with family law, crime and tort, and with procedure. In the very inadequate review to which we must limit ourselves, our object is not to criticise, but rather to call attention to the character and interest of a work the most important of its kind which has yet appeared in English. It should be said that the book embodies the results of the latest researches not only of English and American, but of Continental scholars also.

The authors do not go into constitutional or political history, but the opening chapters are, nevertheless, of very general historical interest. They deal with the meaning and effect of the Norman Conquest as regards private law. With regard to the period before the Conquest they call attention to the fact that the manners, dress, and dialects of our ancestors are far better known to us than their laws. We are accustomed to regard law as something permanent and prescribed, preserved in books and handed down from generation to generation, ascertainable beforehand by means of study, and modified as occasion may arise by legislation; it is certain that this was a conception wholly foreign to the mind of the early inhabitants of England. The great body of Anglo-Saxon law consisted of traditional custom (vol. i., p. 2), Germanic in nature and origin, the "dooms" issued by English princes from time to time not having been promulgated with any idea of constructing a body of law. The glimpse that we get in these pages of the Saxon period shows us many features with which we are familiar as belonging to later times (the Norman Conquest did not destroy the Saxon world, but rather developed it in a new way) and many that are common to other primitive societies. There is first the free man and the slave; and of free men some are lords, while the rest are followers or dependents of lords. The family is "the joint family or household which is still an integral part of Hindu and South Slavonic life." We must conceive of kindred, "not as an artificial body or corporation to which the state allows authority over its members in order that it may be answerable for them, but as an element of the state prior to the state itself" (p. 7). The power of the state, however, is increasing; in the tenth century, by drawing upon the forces of three counties, it is able to bring an offending member of a powerful family to justice. The blood-feud, a purely family custom, is in full force, and, perhaps owing to that respect for women which from the time of Tacitus has been noticed as a Germanic peculiarity, runs on the mother's as well as on the father's side.

Preëminence is accorded to men of noble birth. A noble by birth is an "eorl," the ordinary freeman a "ceorl," the thane is a sort of country gentleman attached to the household of a great man (every one is follower or slave of some greater man) with a definite legal rank, so that the sum fixed as the price of his death, to be paid to his kindred, is six times as great as in the case of a common man (p. 10); his oath is more valuable also. A keen eye for exchangeable value seems to have distinguished the mind of our race from the earliest times. Foreigners are amused when we, nowadays, speak of a man's being "worth" so much. It is a very old habit, but in the tenth century it had a more literal meaning: a "twelve-hundred man" or "two-hundred man" meant a man whose death would cost respectively twelve hundred or two hundred shillings. Civil and ecclesiastical authority are sadly confused: the bishop, for instance, sits in the county court (p. 17); it is enough to say that, the clergy being the educated class (outside the church, writing and books are unknown), legislation, the direction of justice and government in general, are to a great extent in their hands. "Probably we owe it to the Church that Anglo Saxon law has left us any written evidences at all" (p. 11).

Slavery approaches the slavery of the Roman law. Serfdom is "much more of a personal bondage, and less involved with occupation of particular land," than after the Conquest (p. 13). A lively slave trade is carried on through English ports, and, what is probably an illustration of one of the leading primitive causes of slavery, free men enslave themselves in time of distress as a means of subsistence. Nevertheless, the practice of manumission exists, and a deep-rooted antipathy to slavery is shown by the clergy; we hear of Wulfstan, Bishop of Worcester, who held his place through the Conquest, going to Bristol in person and putting down the trade between that port and Ireland.

Courts of justice, as we know them, do not exist. To understand the condition of things, we must imagine a still earlier society in which the state plays no part, and redress for wrongs is obtained by the strong arm. The effort of the state as it becomes organized (the King originally being the state) is to do away with this method of redress, and not only to provide justice, but to compel people to settle their differences in court rather than outside of it. In Anglo Saxon times, this process has not gone very far; in fact, there are no obvious means of compelling obedience to a legal summons, and a large part of the law consists of provisions for the conduct of suits when the

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parties make default. This carries us back to the earliest times, when the jurisdiction of a court depended upon the consent of the parties (p. 14). Public courts are held in the open air, private courts in the house of the lord.

As to the substance of the law, that of property consists almost entirely of unwritten custom and local usage. The law of contract is so rudimentary as to be barely existent, for there is hardly any foreign trade, business is transacted by word of mouth with neighbors, there is no system of credit. The only rules of law that are fully and explicitly stated relate to killing, wounding, and theft, chiefly cattle stealing. As wrongs of this sort are much older than either kings or state, we should anticipate that, even in Anglo-Saxon times, offences against the latter would be distinguished from the former, and so they are; but the procedure in the two cases remains substantially the same till within a century of the Conquest.

All procedure is archaic and based entirely on form. "Mistakes in form were probably fatal at every stage" (p. 15). In other words, the substance of a controversy is not the rights or injury involved, but the form in which it is stated. Difficult as it is to imagine the attitude of mind which renders such a conception possible, it is no easier to comprehend the primitive view of proof. The Anglo-Saxon oath is not simply a means of affecting the witness's conscience; it is proof in itself. An oath duly made is conclusive, and the oath is not to specific facts, but to the claim or defence as a whole (p. 15). The number of oaths required depends on the nature of the case and the rank of the persons concerned.

As law consists mainly of custom, all questions of property and most questions of justice are local. Private jurisdiction is common, and the county court and hundred court suffice for most purposes. The "King's justice" is exceptional, and is not to be invoked until local justice has failed. If some powerful lord interferes with the administration of justice locally, the King may be called in, but instead of his being recognized as the "fountain of justice," the royal intervention is exceptional, and resembles rather a descent upon rebels than process of court.

As to land-tenure in Anglo-Saxon times we have little information, but we know that it was not feudal. Land is either book-land or folk-land, the former consisting of what we should call royal grants to bishops and religious houses or to lay nobles (p. 37). Folk-land in all probability means the bulk of the land held by unwritten customary right, and what this was we do not know. In the grant by book the authors see the germ of the coming feudalism. It is a grant of lordship and revenues, perhaps of jurisdiction and its profits; but as it is a grant in what we call fee-simple, the distinguishing mark of feudal tenure is wanting On the whole, though it may be true that Anglo-Saxon civilization would sooner or later have produced a feudal system, what seems certain, on the evidence here brought forward, is that the determining factor in the production of the system of law known to us as English was the Conquest. "The Norman Conquest is a catastrophe which determines the whole future history of English law" (p. 57). And yet here, as elsewhere, it is the unexpected which happens. The result is not Norman, nor French, nor Continental. It is a new government, a new language, and a new law, each quite different from any other in existence.

Strange as it may seem, we have fewer contemporary materials for a knowledge of Norman law than we have of Anglo-Saxon. The authors are so averse to generalization that they object to the word "feudal" as descriptive of the system which grew up in England under the Normans, because feudalism covers several centuries of history and many very different countries. Nevertheless, whatever it be called, medieval tenures in England cannot be said to have existed among the Saxons. With regard to immediate differences the evidence shows, first, that the invaders were French, and brought French laws, language, and ideas with them; second, that Norman law was feudal—that is, that the invaders brought the theory of dependent tenure with them, as well as the idea of seignorial justice, to say nothing of ordeal by battle. Money compositions, the *wer* of the Saxons, seem to have been unknown to them—in other words, they had advanced beyond this primitive conception of punishment, which is clearly connected with that of family, tribe, or kindred; while they had in the Inquest a simple but strictly probative inquiry into matters of fact, the germ not only of trial by jury, but of rational as distinguished from superstitious methods of proof. Finally, and, considering the times, the fact is significant, themselves soldiers and men of action, they knew the value of uniform law. The conqueror's right-hand man was Lanfranc, the great lawyer of Pavia, traces of whose Italian training are believed to be still visible in the pages of Domesday Book.

The foregoing may serve to give some slight idea of the earlier chapters. To go more into details, let us take trial by jury. Is there anything new to be learned about it? We have long known that the primitive jury was not at all the body that we know, and it has been the fashion to say that whereas now jurors constitute a special tribunal of fact and pass upon the credibility and probability of testimony offered by the parties, they were formerly witnesses. Now a witness is a person who comes into court and testifies to a fact. On points which we call points of law he is not allowed to open his mouth. Yet nothing is clearer in the early cases than that the jury was relied on to settle questions of law. In the Year-books the verdict takes the form of question and answer; and such questions are asked as, Which of the two has the greater right to Blackacre, William or Hugh? or, What damage has *A* done *B*? The jury answer, "William," or "Hugh," or "100 shillings," as the case may be. What the authors say about trial by jury seems to explain the whole matter. Before the introduction of the jury, there was in England practically no notion of proof as we understand it, and, what is more, law consisted of local custom, which could be proved only by local evidence. The right of William or Hugh to Blackacre, for instance, would depend on facts within the knowledge of persons living in the neighborhood, and the right would be known to them and nobody else. Consequently, if proof by ordeal (or multiplication of oaths, which was the method in force in the Saxon world) was to be supplanted by a rational method, one of the first steps would naturally be an inquiry of those locally cognizant of the facts as to what the facts were. They would therefore be witnesses, but they would often be witnesses to what we call law as well as to fact. The machinery for this inquiry the Normans had in the Frankish Inquest, and it is among the smaller surprises of which this book is full to find it laid down as pretty well settled that the origin of the palladium of our liberties is "not English but Frankish, not popular, but royal" (vol. i., p. 121).

To turn to a question of procedure, a very interesting account of the "forms of action" makes many points clear, though suggesting, of course, questions which the authors do not answer. Whatever the origin of the Writ may be, the only way to understand a mediæval action is to bear in mind that while to us the right or injury involved in a controversy is the main thing (and a large portion of our reports consists of discussions of the nature and extent of rights and injuries), these considerations nine centuries ago were practically unimportant. Injuries were few and simple, rights were governed by custom; the great question was one of relief. Could relief be had? Now what the Chancellors of the first English Kings appear to have done is to have devised a royal writ for any form of wrong that was brought to their notice. It is generally said that the common law provided a vast number of fixed forms of writs for interference with real property, and had only one, that of trespass, for almost every other kind of complaint. The facts given here (vol. ii., ch. ix.) seem to make it quite clear that what actually happened was that writs were invented as fast as they were needed, and that at one time writs multiplied until nearly every possible form of complaint or demand had been put into this form. If the writs at a given period could be all brought together, we should have a complete codification of the law of the time. The writ, therefore, did not represent originally a spirit of formalism, but of constant innovation. The formalism is seen when we come to inquire what takes place after the writ is issued. Then we find that the plaintiff, having selected his form of action, must stick to it. He cannot make a general complaint and let the court determine afterwards what the action is. The golden age of these forms may be regarded as one of progress; at a later date we find an entirely new process going on. Writs can no longer be invented; to give a new right of action, Parliament must be resorted to, or else the judges by means of fictions develop one form of action out of another. Why the change should have taken place we do not know, but it is obviously a mistake to imagine that the writ represented that sort of rigid formalism which we associate with the early Roman law. As the authors say, "Let us not be impatient with our forefathers." It was through their determination not to allow judges to do what they pleased with actions that the English race escaped the system of the civilians and canonists, which was later to prove a ready weapon for tyrants. It is the boast of the modern law-reformer that he has swept away form and put in its place substance; and yet in these pages a time is revived when Form was the "twin sister of Liberty."

Fingerprint Directories. By Francis Galton, F.R.S., D.C.L. Oxford, and Hon. S.C.D. Cambridge. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. 127.

In his former book Mr. Galton has convinced his wondering readers that the total number of different fingerprints in the world—that is, the patterns in which the papillary ridges in the bulbs just below the tips of the fingers are disposed—is very great indeed; so great that there is less than one chance in four that any one finger should ever find in the whole wide world another finger to match it exactly. He has also made it plain that these markings of the finger-tips do not vary with age; in none

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of the many cases examined after an interval of years was there any change, with one exception, that of a child of two years, on whose finger at the age of fifteen two little ridges had fused into one. And nothing is easier than to take the impression: a copper plate is smeared with a thin smooth layer of printer's ink, the fingers are pressed firmly upon it and then upon a piece of paper, and the thing is done. It is evident that this extraordinary individuality in the tips of the fingers furnishes a sure means for the identification of criminals—far surer, even, than Bertillon's system of measurements. In practice (for the method is already in practice in England), the impressions of all ten fingers are taken, to make assurance doubly sure, and there is then no possibility of not being able to recognize a given man by his markings after any interval of time. It is wholly inconceivable that two persons should show coincidence in the prints of two or three, not to speak of ten, fingers. The method is therefore simplicity itself as a method of *proving* identity, and incomparably more certain than personal recognition or identification by photograph.

It was a very different question how far it could be used for the purpose of *tracing* identity; that requires a classification of finger-prints, and it might easily have happened that they did not readily lend themselves to classification—that they had exhibited interminable intermediate gradations, as do the individual members of a heap of broken stone by the road-side, instead of falling into distinctly marked families, or groups, as do the natural kinds (to use the logician's term) of the animal or vegetable world. The fact that they do not constitute a continuum is what gives them a superiority over Bertillon's measurements as a means of identification. It is to the explaining of his method of effecting this classification that Mr. Galton's present volume is devoted. It turns out that there are three *types* of pattern, to one or the other of which every finger-print may be referred—namely, the papillary ridges may be arranged in *arches*, *loops*, or *whorls*, and this characteristic alone, combined with the fact that there are ten fingers instead of one, and that the several fingers vary independently, is sufficient to subdivide the class of English criminals into some 60,000 groups (the tenth power of three), containing each an easily manageable number of types, which can then be discriminated from each other by the examination of several minuter forms of difference. A man's description might then be

w l l a a w a l,

which means (in the order which will hereafter be adopted) that the little finger of his left hand presents a whorl, the ring-finger a loop, the middle-finger a loop, and so on. By this means the time required to see whether a man who has just been arrested has already left his finger-marks in the criminals' card-catalogue is reduced to a few minutes. It is true that very many of the possible types do not occur, and some occur with disproportionate frequency, but the method has none the less shown itself to be a perfectly practicable one; it was hit upon only after many other seemingly possible schemes had been rejected.

Society owes to Mr. Galton a due meed of gratitude for having put into its hands, as the result of much patient labor, one more weapon to be used in its long fight against the criminal classes. At sixty-three English prisons finger-prints are now taken by trained wardens and forwarded to a central bureau for classification by experts. There would seem to be every reason why the system should be introduced into other countries as rapidly as possible.

Municipal Home Rule: A Study in Administration. By Frank J. Goodnow. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

PERHAPS there was never a time when a deeper interest was felt in the government of our cities, and the title of Prof. Goodnow's book will doubtless attract many readers. But it is only fair to warn the public that there is nothing "popular" in the methods of investigation and presentation adopted in this treatise. It is essentially a law-book, and large parts of it will be found quite unreadable by the laity unless they are animated by a most determined spirit of inquiry. All attempts at reform in municipal government, Prof. Goodnow contends, "must of necessity depend upon an accurate delimitation of the sphere of action which can, with due regard to the interests of the State as a whole, be assigned to our municipal organizations." This is so because of the intimate connection of municipal with State government, and this connection must be thoroughly understood before we can determine what is feasible in the way of improved city government.

The American municipalities are by origin and development different organizations from the municipalities of Europe. In that continent the origin of local self-government is to be found in the old feudal idea of the autonomous rights of the cities. Every one knows the great part played by these semi-independent communities in the Middle Ages; but it is perhaps commonly supposed that the development of centralized administration in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries extinguished local autonomy. Prof. Goodnow points out that this is an erroneous view, and that, after the French Revolution, the principle came to be recognized that municipal corporations had a sphere in which they could act free from all central control. The relation of the general Government to the municipal governments is similar to that of the Government of the United States to the States. The presumption is in favor of municipal competency, and the central administration can interfere only where it has express authority. In America the case is reversed, and it may be laid down as a general rule that none of our cities has any self-governing capacity except such as is expressly delegated to it by constitution or statute.

This feature of our system is in the main due to English precedent. The English cities have had no such careers as those of the Continent, and their influence in English political history is of recent date. The incorporation of municipal boroughs in the time of the Tudors had the purpose and effect of enabling these bodies to own property, but gave them very limited governing powers. The corporations formed under these charters consisted of a small number of citizens, and their incapacity for efficient administration of public affairs, as well as their political corruption, has been proverbial. For a long time the tendency was to create additional administrative bodies for special purposes, as new wants were developed; but during the last half-century the whole system, or muddle, as it might better be called, has been reconstructed. We cannot consider the details of this process, but the general result has been to create genuine local legislatures with administrative powers, subject to the supervision in certain lines of national boards of commissioners; and this result is commended to our favorable consideration by Prof. Goodnow.

The American municipal organization consisted in the first place of a municipal council, which discharged nearly all the functions of government. By way of improvement this council came to be organized as a bicameral body, and as a further check to misgovernment the mayor was made independent of it. Then followed the changes demanded by the spirit of democracy; the extension of the suffrage leading to the election by the people of pretty nearly all the principal administrative officers. The reaction from this state of affairs led to the investment of the mayor with enlarged functions, giving him, as Prof. Goodnow says, "a plenitude of power which is unexampled in the aristocratic society and monarchical governments of Europe." This form of government, however, he regards with disapprobation, because it has not so far been very successful, and because foreign municipalities have secured better government by a different system. But as he seems to ignore the fact that foreign municipalities are not governed by universal suffrage, we cannot assume that we have only to imitate their institutions to obtain their success.

The complications arising from the control of the administration of municipal affairs by State legislatures have been infinite, and the attempts by constitutional restraints to remedy the mischiefs so resulting have not succeeded. Prof. Goodnow examines at length the cases arising under the prohibition of "special legislation," and devotes much space to the decisions that have defined the liability of municipal corporations for tools and for the management of their property. His analysis and comparison of these decisions is very thorough, and has much interest for lawyers and students of political institutions; but it is altogether too technical to be considered here, and, indeed, most of it might have been omitted without injury to the writing of the treatise. It would have been sufficient for the author's argument had he stated the principles recognized by the courts without summarizing the cases, although, of course, the method that he has followed is more satisfactory from the legal point of view. The chief points that he makes are the necessity of withdrawing matters of purely local concern from the control of the State Legislature, while retaining State control in affairs of general interest. The distinction and its difficulties are well illustrated by the agitation concerning the excise laws which is now prevailing in New York. According to Prof. Goodnow, it would not do at all to permit cities to manage their own affairs without some State control, but this control he proposes to limit to such things as are of public importance, and to commit its exercise to central boards of administration, as has been done in the case of State boards of health, education, etc. In short, he proposes to introduce something of the centralized administration against which De Tocqueville warned us. This change in American policy is too momentous to be examined in this review, and we will confine ourselves to remarking upon the changes wrought by time in the political doctrines inculcated at the college where Lieber thundered against bureaucracy.

The Silva of North America: A Description of the Trees which grow naturally in North America, exclusive of Mexico. By Charles Sprague Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. Illus-

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trated with figures and analyses drawn from nature by Charles Edward Faxon. Vol. VIII. Cupuliferæ (Quercus). Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THIS sumptuous treatise progresses steadily, on substantially the lines marked out by Prof. Sargent in his introduction. Following the generally accepted sequence of the natural orders of flowering plants, the work has now reached in its development the interesting family to which the oaks belong. To the fifty species of this genus growing north of Mexico, and to a few hybrids between certain species, the present volume is devoted.

Of the system of nomenclature adopted by Prof. Sargent it is not perhaps necessary to speak at this time, further than to express again what has been embodied in the notices of the earlier volumes, namely, the belief that the system greatly impairs the permanent value of the whole work. But, this kept out of view, one can have only words of praise for the pages of illustration and of text now before us. The proportions in the letter-press have been well kept, and most of the illustrations are even more satisfactory than those which have preceded them in the earlier orders.

A treatise like this must, from the nature of the case, consist of at least three threads in the strand. There is, first, the plant-portrait with analytical details. It is this which imparts to the treatise, if the work is thoroughly well done, as it is here throughout, a high degree of value which cannot diminish as the years go by, although so much else in science becomes obsolete. Mr. Faxon's fidelity to true morphology, his remarkable insight into recondite matters of structure, and his artistic feeling as well as skill, place all the eight volumes easily in the first rank. It should be said in passing, that the reproducers of Mr. Faxon's work have not fallen off from their early excellence. In some of the plates there is a decided improvement. Perhaps attention should also be called to the fact that the superb plates in this volume exhibit many characteristics displayed by the trees in their winter state. The second thread of the strand consists of the systematic descriptions, which are, of course, mainly verified amplifications of the details presented by the many botanical authors who have first studied the species in question. But with them must be incorporated the results of more recent investigations, and the whole co-ordinated. While a final decision as to the success attained in this must be reserved until the descriptions have been subjected to actual trial at the hands of students, it can now be said that the difficult task appears to have been well done. The third of the factors referred to is less important in itself, but it goes a long way towards making such a work of immediate interest, and that is the matter of general information. Almost all trees have interesting peculiarities; these characters have been happily seized on by Prof. Sargent and felicitously treated. Nomenclature aside, therefore, we have only commendation for the volume. It remains to be seen whether the appearance of biographical sketches of living botanists given freely as footnotes will have the effect of stimulating or of repressing botanical research.

As generally limited, the genus Quercus, or Oak, comprises not far from three hundred species, of which about fifty occur in North America, north of Mexico. Our species are grouped rather naturally into the white oaks, more than half the whole, and the black oaks, which, with one anomalous species, make up the rest. White-oak acorns, taking the term white oak in its large sense as signifying a class, have very little or no downiness on their inner surface, while the other group is characterized by the presence of a surface which in some cases is velvety. Besides these obvious characters, there are certain distinctions between the classes which mean a good deal to botanists, such as the number of the stamens, the length of the styles, and the position of the abortive ovules. But when one comes to the divisions of the two classes themselves, it is necessary to make use of the fact that some of them ripen their fruit in one year, while others take two; after this division, one has to employ the leaves to obtain further characters. Veining, shape, and surface all have to bear their part in furnishing distinguishing characters. Leaves are variable at best, and oftentimes most puzzling, but in the genus Quercus they are fairly constant in shape and lobing. Hence Mr. Faxon's faithful delineations give trustworthy standards, which cannot fail to settle some disputed points. And, too, his excellent drawings of bare twigs will enable the very impatient, who cannot wait until next summer for the leaves to appear on their oaks, to make a shrewd guess as to the species in hand.

Those who would construct the family tree of oaks out of the existing fragmentary evidence in the strata of tertiary or earlier formations have concluded that the genus had its origin with the chestnuts far to the north, and that possibly it has seen its best days. But the wide range of the three hundred surviving species, and the innumerable uses to which the valuable trees may be put, stimulating man to cherish and even cultivate certain sorts, indicate sufficiently that the oaks are far from being really decadent.

Advance Japan. By J. Morris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

WHETHER Mr. Morris, who has been in the employ of the Japanese Department of Public Works, means the first word of his title to represent a verb in the imperative mood or an adjective qualifying the noun—with the suggestion of a letter dropped at the end of a participial form—might puzzle a grammarian to decide. His full title is "Advance Japan: A Nation Thoroughly in Earnest." The work reminds us of a snap-photograph of a procession. It is the literary picture of the Japan of 1895. The style is that of a writer for an encyclopædia, and the chapters are broken up into paragraphs with headings, each of which in bold-faced type names the subject treated of below. The author gives us more than four-score modern illustrations (besides some capital charts and outline maps), which are reproductions mostly of photographs, in various degrees of artistic merit. He uses the best authorities, though he quotes or gives credit to none. His statements are therefore as accurate and as pragmatic as an engineer's note-book. Traces of literary beauty are few, and there is no index. The book is, however, a superb campaign document in questions of British foreign politics. It will handsomely supplement Messrs. Curzon and Norman's proofs that Japan is well worthy of being an ally of Great Britain.

This is the book to read for information, for it is an excellent example of the literature of knowledge. The clearness and thoroughness with which Mr. Morris has digested, distilled, and decanted a whole library of books on Japan is such as will exasperate the unquoted authors and ignored investigators, while delighting the busy reader. History, geography, language, manners and customs, communications, etc., etc., are tersely described in the genuine style of the staff writer on a dictionary. In the last four or five chapters the author's diction warms appreciably, for when he pictures armaments and narrates the story of the Chino-Japanese war, he tells about that of which he was part. Being much in the interior, he knew the men who made soldiers, as well as their machines and methods of engineering and transportation. The account of the war operations is accurate, as well as clear and detailed, and, with the illustrations, forms probably the best existing digest of what was, in reality, an eight-months' strife between Japan and the two or three only (of the eighteen) Chinese provinces interested.

Like almost all the men who have come into closest contact with the Japanese, Mr. Morris believes that they are not a people "prone to content themselves with a mere veneer of scientific culture." Despite his evident lack of acquaintance with the moral forces making the new Japan, he believes that "relapse is impossible." He finds in the Japanese exactly that quality which Orientals are popularly supposed to lack, and which he calls "mental ballast." He says: "Unlike other Asiatic peoples, they preserve their equilibrium under all conditions, are thoroughly practical, persevering, and sincere." To which verdict, after twenty-seven years of close acquaintance with the Japanese, we say "Amen!"

Though vastly more than a tourist, Mr. Morris is not a scholar, for he translates the title of the retired *kuambaku*, or regent Taikosama, as "Great General." To an American who knows that Townsend Harris was the first and real maker of the treaties and the opener of the ports of Japan, the credit awarded to Lord Elgin (p. 126) seems either a joke or an illustration of the way some Englishmen write history. Almost as a matter of course, Mr. Morris uncritically accepts the prehistoric chronology of the native fabulists and myth-makers, which was invented a thousand years or so ago. Except a few slips like these, the seeker after facts will not be disappointed in this book.

The Natural History of Aquatic Insects. By Prof. L. C. Miall, F.R.S. With illustrations by A. R. Hammond, F.L.S. Macmillan & Co. 16mo, pp. 389, figs. 116.

THIS volume is a contribution of more than ordinary value toward the growing demand for information concerning the habits and life histories of the insect world. The author is Professor of Biology in Yorkshire College, Leeds, and is evidently one of the class not contented with serving simply as an instructor; he is also an investigator and an earnest student of nature. While the purpose in view in the preparation of this volume is modestly announced as a desire to revive an interest in the writings of certain old zoölogists, as Réaumur, Lyonnet, and De Geer, the work contains several studies which are obviously new, illustrated with drawings made by the author or under his supervision. As one of these, we would cite the chapter on *Simulium*, or the black fly, in which is told (although by another writer) how the fly which lives in its larval and pupal stages beneath the water, when in readiness to assume its final winged form is released from its pupal case enclosed in a bubble of air, which, when reaching the surface, explodes, at the same time spreading out the limbs of the fly so that it can run upon the water until it finds some solid support where its wings may expand

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and dry and fit it for flight. To those of us who knew the black fly only as the terror of the Adirondacks and of some of the Southern States, it will be a surprise to learn that "in Britain the flies of *Simulium* are perfectly harmless."

It will also be a surprise to most of the readers of this volume to find how much of interest is connected with a study of aquatic insects, differing so greatly as they do from those which ordinarily come under our observation. It will be quite new to learn of their number. Instead of there being a single family of "water-bugs," representatives of most of the orders in their early stages are to be found in the water, even the caterpillars of moths, larvæ of ichneumon flies, and grasshoppers. The author maintains that an aquatic life has been acquired by insects. Originally they were all terrestrial. Later, "both fresh and salt waters have been successfully invaded by insects." The successive steps by which this has been accomplished is shown in the varied habits of the *Tipulidæ* (crane-flies), etc. The larvæ of some of these live in dry soil, others in moist earth near streams. Some live immersed in soft mud or water, but come to the surface for air; while, finally, there are those which obtain their entire supply of oxygen from the water.

There are many interesting features in this volume to which attention might properly be called, but it may suffice in this brief notice to commend its careful reading to those who desire to know more of the life of nature in its infinitely varied forms. The book is worthy also of a place, for reference use, in the libraries of working entomologists.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, A. V. The Electrical Transmission of Energy. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.50.
Abbott, C. C. A Colonial Wooing. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Alger, Horatio, Jr. Adrift in the City. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Anderson, Rasmus B. The First Chapter of Norwegian Immigration (1821—1840): Its Causes and Results. Madison, Wis.: The Author.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. The Tenth Muse, and Other Poems. Longmans, Green & Co.
Babington, W. D. Fallacies of Race Theories as Applied to National Characteristics. Longmans, Green & Co.
Balfour, F. H. Cherryfield Hall: An Episode in the Career of an Adventuress. Putnams. $1.
Barr, Mrs. Amelia E. Bernicia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Bird, H. E. Chess Novelties. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Black, Alexander. Miss Jerry. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.
Bloundelle-Burton, John. The Desert Ship. F. Warne & Co. $1 25
Boldrewood, Rolf. The Crooked Stick; or, Pollie's Probation. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Leaders among Women. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Boothby, Guy. A Bid for Fortune. Appletons.
Boutwell, G. S. The Constitution of the United States at the End of the First Century. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $3.50.
Brightwen, Mrs. Inmates of My House and Garden. Illustrated. Macmillan. $1.25.
Brown, Rev. John. The Pilgrim Fathers of New England and their Puritan Successors. F. H. Revell Co. $2.50.
Buchan, John. Sir Quixote of the Moors. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Buchanan, Robert, and Murray, Henry. The Charlatan. F. T. Neely.
Buehler, H. G. Practical Exercises in English. Harpers.
Burnett, Mrs Frances H. Two Little Pilgrims' Progress: A Story of the City Beautiful. Scribners. $1.50.
Byng, A. H., and Stephens, S. M. The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper. 3d ed. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.
Callaway, Miss Frances B. Charm and Courtesy in Letter-Writing. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Carey, Rosa N. My Little Boy Blue. F. H. Revell Co. 30 cents.
Carr, J. C. King Arthur: A Drama. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Champney, Mrs. E. W. Witch Winnie at Versailles. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Chatterjee, Bankim Chandra. Krishna Kanta's Will. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.
Chittenden, L. E. Abraham Lincoln's Speeches. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Church, Rev. R. W. The Beginning of the Middle Ages. Macmillan. $1.50.
Coleridge, E. H. Anima Poetæ. From the Unpublished Note-Books of S. T. Coleridge. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Cook, Clarence. The House Beautiful: Essays on Beds and Tables, Stools and Candlesticks. New ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Dodd, Rev. William. The Beauties of Shakspere. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Donohoe, Rev. Thomas. The Iroquois and the Jesuits. Buffalo: Catholic Publication Co.
Dougall, L. A Question of Faith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Earle, Mrs. Alice M. Colonial Dames and Good Wives. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Eggleston, G. C. American War Ballads and Lyrics. Putnams. $1.50.
Elliott, E. S. A Day's Time Table. F. H. Revell Co. 30 cents.
Flory, M. A. A Book about Fans. Macmillan. $2.50.
Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. VI. Putnams.
France, L. B. Over the Old Trail: A Novel. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Fenn, G. M. Cormorant Crag: A Tale of the Smuggling Days. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Ferguson, James, and Fergusson, Robert M. Records of the Clan and Name of Fergusson, Ferguson, and Fergus. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Finley, Miss Martha. Elsie's Journey on Inland Waters. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Fox, John, Jr. A Cumberland Vendetta, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Gardner, Prof. Percy, and Jevons, F. B. A Manual of Greek Antiquities. Scribners. $4
Garnett, Richard. *William Blake, Painter and Poet.* [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Gibson, W. H. Our Edible Toadstools and Mushrooms, and How to Distinguish Them. Illustrated. Harpers. $7.50.
Gore, Rev. Charles. Dissertations on Subjects connected with the Incarnation. Scribners. $2.50.
Grant, Robert. The Art of Living. Scribners. $2.50.
Grant, Robert. The Opinions of a Philosopher. Scribners. $1.25.
Grant, Robert. The Reflections of a Married Man. Scribners. $1.25.
Geikie, Cunningham. The Apostles: Their Lives and Letters. [New Testament Hours.] James Pott & Co. $1.50
Granville, Margaret. The Summer Heart. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Graves, Prof. F. P., and Hawes, E. S. A First Book in Greek. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Gregory, Prof. Emily L. Elements of Plant Anatomy. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Guerber, Miss H. A. Contes et Légendes. Part II. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Guerber, Miss H. A. Stories of the Wagner Operas. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Hare, Augustus J. C. The Gurneys of Earlham. 2 vols. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $6 00.
Harris, J. C. Mr. Rabbit at Home. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
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